

Instruction in Professional Ethics
in
Professional Schools for Teachers

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T. D. M.

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Introduction

A widespread and growing interest in the improvement of human relationships has characterized the first thirty years of the twentieth century. This interest has been expressed among professional and industrial groups by the adoption of codes of ethics and standards of practice. In 1924 a volume was published containing approximately 200 such codes and statements adopted by national or interstate organizations.¹ Few of these appeared before the beginning of the present century. Fifty-two were adopted between 1900 and 1920, and 140 between 1920 and 1924.

At a meeting of the Interprofessional Committee of the American Academy of Political and Social Science held in Detroit in 1919 leaders in various fields discussed the value of codes and statements of practice as means for improving both professional service and professional relationships.² As a sequel to this conference the May, 1922, issue of the *Annals of the Academy* was devoted almost wholly to the same subject. The trend of opinion expressed in these articles was that codes of ethics and statements of approved practices are effective steps toward better professional conduct and higher social levels. The frequent treatment which problems of professional ethics have received during recent years in textbooks prepared for use in professional schools, in trade journals, and at state and national conventions is further evidence of increasing interest in these problems. Activity in the field has grown so greatly that in 1926 Cabot wrote, "Ethics is beginning to be fashionable."³

Causes of Growing Interest in Professional Ethics

Several reasons have been advanced for the recent growth of interest in problems of pro-

fessional ethics. Lee contends that the urge toward higher ethical standards in business resulted from the activities of the "muck-rakers" in the early years of this century.⁴ Kent believes that the movement was not stimulated primarily by idealistic reformers but arose naturally from man's developing sense of mutual responsibility.⁵ Kohn suggests that it was the result of the keener moral sensitiveness stimulated by the experiences of the World War,⁶ while Cabot maintains that the work of the Federal Trade Commission, organized in 1915, was one of the most influential factors.⁷ Doubtless impetus was also given to the movement by the aggressive campaign for code adoption conducted by the International Association of Rotary Clubs.⁸ Whatever the causes may have been, the general conviction has spread that the adoption of definite standards of practice is mutually beneficial to the vocations concerned and to society as a whole.

Codes of Ethics Among Teachers

Among teachers the development of professional standards of conduct has paralleled roughly the movement in other vocational groups. During the past thirty years numerous codes of ethics for teachers have been prepared by individuals, by classes in teacher training institutions, and by local, state, and national associations. The first official state code for teachers was adopted in 1896 by the state teachers' association of Georgia. The California association followed suit in 1904 and the Alabama association in 1908. By 1920, the teachers' associations of eight states had

¹ Heermance, Edgar L. *Codes of Ethics*. Free Press Printing Co., 1924. 525 p.

² Whitaker, Charles Harris. "The Interrelations of the Professions." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. 101:13: May, 1922.

³ Cahot, Richard C. *Adventures on the Borderlands of Ethics*. Harper and Bros., 1926. p. vii.

⁴ Lee, James Melvin. *Business Ethics*. Ronald Press, 1926. p. 45.

⁵ Kent, Edwin N. *The Business Side of Dentistry*. C. V. Mosby, 1929. p. 20.

⁶ Kohn, Robert D. "The Significance of the Professional Ideal." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. 101: 1: May, 1922.

⁷ Cahot, Richard C. *Op. cit.* p. 78-9.

⁸ Gundaker, Guy. "Campaign of the International Association of Rotary Clubs for the Writing of Codes of Standard of Practice for Each Business and Profession." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. 101 228-36; May, 1922.

adopted official codes¹ and by 1930, thirty-three states reported the adoption of such documents.² The National Education Association appointed a committee on ethics in 1924 and in 1929 officially approved the code recommended in the report of that committee.³

The increased frequency with which problems of professional ethics have been treated during recent years in educational publications and conventions indicates a growing awareness of the need for further development in this field⁴ and Marsh suggests that the teaching force of the nation ought to take advantage of its opportunity for leadership in the nationwide movement for improved practice in the business and professional world.⁵

The Value of Codes of Ethics

Early writers in this field were inclined to put great faith in the mere formulation of codes of ethics. King introduces his foreword to the May, 1922, issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* with the categorical statement, "Codes of ethics are important agencies for social control."⁶ Jones expresses a similar conviction in the following statement

"The ideals of men best project themselves into reality when crystalized in written documents. . . . In every line of human activity a united written expression of that which is best for the common good becomes a strong force for progress. The mere expression clarifies the sentiment."⁷

Landis, after studying the problem intensively, is much less positive of the value resulting merely from the development of written codes and Cabot reports that he is not sanguine "about any reform in business ethics to be produced merely by the formulation and publication of a code."⁸ While writers agree that codes of ethics and statements of approved

practice have considerable potential value, those who have studied the problem recently emphasize the importance of making adequate provision for their dissemination and enforcement. This, as Landis suggests, is principally an educational job.⁹

Educational Implications

The effectiveness of any code of professional ethics depends upon three closely related conditions. The code must be stated clearly and specifically; it must be widely disseminated and thoroughly understood; and it must be accompanied by means of enforcement. This study is primarily concerned with the first two of these conditions; namely, the clear statement and wide dissemination of standards of professional conduct. The importance of education in this connection is well expressed for the teaching profession in the following statement:

"Of course, the mere formulation of codes of ethics will not accomplish much unless there is in some way implanted in every new teacher a sense of individual responsibility for maintaining good professional standards. This is the task of state departments of education, of superintendents of schools, and especially of the faculties of teacher-training schools."¹⁰

The foregoing discussion immediately raises two large problems: (1) what administrative arrangements should be made for training teachers regarding the principles and standards of professional conduct? and (2) what standards of conduct should be observed by teachers? This investigation does not attempt to answer these questions completely. It aims rather to throw some light on them, and thereby to stimulate still further the increasing interest of recent years in the whole problem of professional ethics among teachers.

¹ National Education Association, Committee on Ethics of the Profession. *Report: The Ethics of the Teaching Profession*. (Sarah T. Muir, Chairman.) July, 1926. p. 14-16.

² See Table 8, Chapter III.

³ Muir, Sarah T., chairman. "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession—Abstract." *Proceedings*, 1929. Vol. 67. National Education Association, 1929. p. 179-82.

⁴ Koos, Leonard V. *The American Secondary School*. Ginn and Company, 1927. p. 673.

⁵ Marsh, J. Frank. *The Teacher Outside the School*. World Book Company, 1928. p. 79.

⁶ King, Clyde L. "Foreword." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 101: vii; May, 1922.

⁷ Heermance, Edgar L. *Op. cit.* p. 1-2.

⁸ Cabot, Richard C. *Op. cit.* p. 79.

⁹ Landis, Benson Young. *Professional Codes*. Contributions to Education, No. 267. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 11.

¹⁰ Chambers, George Gailey. "Codes of Ethics for the Teaching Profession." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. 101: 126; May, 1922.

Purpose

The purpose of this study, therefore, is threefold: (1) to discover current administrative practices regarding instruction in professional ethics; (2) to suggest administrative arrangements which professional schools for teachers may use to acquaint their students with the accepted standards of professional conduct; and (3) to prepare a selected and annotated list of standards of professional conduct which may be used as a basis for discussion in teacher training classes and among teachers in service.

Methods of Study

To discover what arrangements professional schools now provide for instruction in ethical conduct, three procedures were employed: (1) a questionnaire was sent to the heads of schools of education, law, medicine, architecture, commerce and business, dentistry, journalism, and nursing; (2) the catalogues of a representative number of schools for teachers, lawyers, and physicians were examined; and (3) supplementary information was obtained by correspondence and personal conference with leaders in the eight fields.

The administrative arrangements suggested for the teaching of ethics in schools for teachers are based primarily upon general principles of curriculum construction in the field of teacher training. The proposed arrangements do not represent common practice. Neither are they derived from a consensus of expert opinion. They conform to principles of curriculum construction which have received wide acceptance, but are frankly intended to be merely suggestive.

To obtain the list of standards of professional conduct among teachers, the codes of ethics adopted by the National Education Association and by state teachers' associations were analyzed. Illustrative and explanatory material was drawn partly from the codes and partly from the following sources: (1) reports of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics of the Profession; (2) violations of ethical standards reported by teachers, supervisors, and administrators; (3) books and magazine articles concerned with problems of teacher personnel; (4) the official standards of the medical and legal professions.

PART I

INSTRUCTION IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

CHAPTER I

Current Practices in the Schools of Eight Professions

This chapter presents a survey of provisions for instruction in professional ethics offered by the schools of eight professions: architecture, commerce and business, dentistry, journalism, law, medicine, nursing, and education.¹

Three procedures were employed to obtain the data. First, the questionnaire method was used in all of the eight fields because it permitted direct contact with each of them at a minimum expenditure of time and money.² Second, school catalogues were examined in three fields, law, medicine, and teaching, to secure a check on the accuracy of the questionnaire results and to obtain descriptions of courses offered. Third, personal conferences and correspondence with leaders in the eight fields helped to interpret the data obtained by the first two procedures.

Table 1 shows the number of questionnaires sent and the number of replies received. The percent of schools responding ranged from 44 in the case of schools of nursing to 88 in the

TABLE 1.—EXTENT OF RESPONSE TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Type of Professional School	Number of Questionnaires Sent	Replies Received	
		Number	Percent
1	2	3	4
City Normal Schools.....	28	23	82
State Normal Schools.....	109	61	56
Teachers Colleges.....	99	65	66
Education Departments ¹	209	137	66
Teaching (All schools)...	445	286	64
Architecture.....	25	22	88
Business.....	40	35	88
Dentistry.....	46	38	83
Journalism.....	19	16	84
Law.....	144	102	71
Medicine.....	76	67	88
Nursing.....	300	131	44
Grand Total.....	1095	697	64

Read table as follows: Of the 28 city normal schools to which the questionnaire was sent, 23 or 82 percent replied. Similarly read figures for the other types of institutions.

¹ Departments of education in colleges and universities which grant degrees in education.

case of schools of architecture, business, and medicine. The percent from all schools combined was 64. There is no apparent reason to doubt the representativeness of the schools which replied.

Table 2 shows the number of catalogues examined in the fields of teaching, law, and medicine. In two of these groups, teaching and medicine, the sampling was even larger relatively than in the case of the questionnaire returns. Only in the case of the city normal schools, a comparatively small group, was the number of catalogues examined too small to yield meaningful results.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER AND PERCENT OF SCHOOL CATALOGUES EXAMINED

Type of Professional School	Number in 1928 Directory ¹	Catalogues Examined	
		Number	Percent
1	2	3	4
City Normal Schools.....	28	5	18
State Normal Schools.....	109	103	95
Teachers Colleges.....	99	93	94
Teaching (All Schools)...	236	201	85
Law.....	144	75	52
Medicine.....	76	71	93
Grand Total.....	456	347	76

Read table as follows: Of the total of 236 schools for teachers listed in the Directory, the catalogues of 201 or 85 percent were examined. Similarly read figures for other types of institutions.

¹ U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Educational Directory, 1928*. Bulletin, 1928, No. 1. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Table 3 shows that the two methods of investigation yielded similar results with respect to the percent of schools offering definite courses in professional ethics. In each of the three types of schools the percent indicated by the questionnaire returns was only slightly larger than the percent indicated by the examination of catalogues. It therefore appears

¹ For sources of the lists of schools included, see page 87 in the Appendix.
² The questionnaire used is reproduced on page 84 in the Appendix.

that both procedures are reasonably reliable and that, with certain reservations, the questionnaire returns may be relied upon in the further analysis of the status of ethical instruction in the eight groups of professional schools.

TABLE 3.—PERCENT OF SCHOOLS OFFERING DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS AS INDICATED BY TWO DIFFERENT METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Schools for	Number of Questionnaires Returned	Number of Catalogues Examined	Percent of Schools Offering Definite Courses as Indicated by	
			Questionnaires	Catalogues
1	2	3	4	5
Teachers ¹ ..	149	201	13	8
Lawyers...	102	75	67	63
Physicians.	67	71	43	39

¹ Includes state and city normal schools and teachers colleges. Departments of education in colleges and universities are not included here.

General Status of Ethical Instruction

From the replies to the questionnaire it was possible to differentiate three general types of provision for instruction in professional ethics: (1) definite courses in professional ethics; (2) specific consideration of the subject in units of other courses; and (3) incidental considera-

tion of the subject in all courses. Table 4 shows the situation among the schools of eight professions as indicated by the questionnaire returns. Of the 697 replies received from all types of schools, 42 percent reported definite courses in professional ethics; 41 percent reported specific consideration of professional ethics in other courses; 4 percent reported incidental consideration of the subject in all courses; and 13 percent reported no instruction in the subject.

In studying Table 4 one should bear in mind the extreme difficulty of drawing hard and fast lines of distinction between the three types of provisions just mentioned. Doubtless there is some overlapping between these categories because of differences in interpretation by the officials reporting. The type of provision which was classified by most of those reporting as specific consideration of ethics in another course, was doubtless classified by a few as a definite course in itself. Similarly, it is probable that incidental consideration of the subject was frequently reported as specific consideration in other courses.

On the whole, however, the important features of the situation from the viewpoint of this discussion stand out clearly enough. First, most professional schools give some attention to instruction in professional ethics. Second, these schools as a group are rather evenly divided in practice with reference to offering definite courses in professional ethics, with the bal-

TABLE 4.—ADMINISTRATIVE PROVISIONS REPORTED FOR INSTRUCTION IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

Type of Professional School	Number of Questionnaires Returned	Number of Schools Reporting							
		Definite Courses in Professional Ethics		Specific Treatment in Other Courses		Incidental Treatment in All Courses		No Instruction	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Teaching.....	286	23	8	200	70	8	3	55	19
Architecture...	22	9	41	12	55	0	0	1	4
Business.....	35	6	17	16	46	7	20	6	17
Dentistry.....	38	32	84	6	16	0	0	0	0
Journalism....	16	9	56	6	38	1	6	0	0
Law.....	102	68	67	18	17	7	7	9	9
Medicine.....	67	29	43	19	28	6	9	13	20
Nursing.....	131	120	91	8	6	1	1	2	2
Total.....	697	296	42	285	41	30	4	86	13

Read table as follows: Of the 286 professional schools for teachers which responded to the questionnaire, 23 or 8 percent reported that they offer definite courses in professional ethics; 200 or 70 percent reported that this subject receives specific consideration in other courses; 8 or 3 percent reported that the subject receives incidental consideration in all courses; and 55 or 19 percent reported no instruction in professional ethics. Similarly read figures for the other types of institutions.

ance somewhat in favor of those not offering such courses. Third, different professions vary widely in respect to the proportion of their schools which provide definite courses in this subject.

Causes of Wide Differences in Practice

Column 4 of Table 4 shows wide differences among the various professions with reference to the provision of definite courses in professional ethics. The percents of schools offering such courses range from eight among teacher training institutions to ninety-one among schools for nurses, while approximately half of the schools of architecture, journalism, law, and medicine offer distinct courses in this field. Among schools of commerce and business a very small proportion offer distinct courses, and among schools of dentistry the proportion offering such courses is almost as large as in the case of schools of nursing.

A number of factors must be considered in any attempt to account for these differences. Among schools for teachers the factors of greatest influence against the establishment of definite courses in professional ethics are probably the following: the brevity of most training courses for teachers; the demand of a wide range of subjects for a place in the professional curriculum for teachers; the assumption that the relationships of the teacher do not differ significantly from the ordinary relationships of life; the fact that the rank and file of teachers have until recently been slow to realize the truly professional nature of their calling; and the marked difference of opinion among educators as to the relative values of direct and indirect methods of character education.

In the field of nursing the situation is somewhat different. Although nursing, like teaching, has only recently begun to realize its professional possibilities and responsibilities, it is subject to certain influences which affect education only indirectly or not at all. Nurses, in the practice of their profession, are in close and constant contact with physicians. The medical profession has for years stressed the importance of conduct which conforms to high professional standards. The nurse's work involves the most intimate relationships with both physicians and patients, and thus necessitates a high degree of discretion, a keen sense of propriety, and a clear definition of preroga-

tives and responsibilities. These factors, combined with the ambition of leaders to develop nursing to the level where it will be universally recognized as a full-fledged profession, have resulted in a widespread demand for and establishment of definite courses in professional ethics in the curricula of schools for nurses.

In the field of dentistry, which also is characterized by the very large percent of its schools which provide definite courses in this subject, the dominant factors probably have been similar to those affecting the training of nurses. Dentistry is a much younger profession than medicine, but like nursing is closely identified with the older calling. It, therefore, has a heritage of professional ideals of which it is keenly conscious. This, together with the aspiration of leaders to improve the service and enhance the prestige of this relatively young profession, has led naturally to strong emphasis upon the teaching of ethics in dental schools.

Thus far this discussion of differences in practice has dealt with professions in which the training schools are almost unanimous either in providing definite courses in professional ethics or in failing to do so. As pointed out, however, some of the professions are characterized by a much more even division of practice on this point. What interplay of influences is responsible for such a situation in well-established professions like law and medicine?

Both law and medicine have been recognized as professional callings for a great many years. They have not needed to broadcast their codes of ethics or to espouse instruction in professional conduct in order to gain prestige. Until comparatively recent years the professional training which preceded active practice in these fields was largely of the apprentice type. A young man aspiring to become a lawyer secured a position as clerk in the office of an active practitioner. During his spare moments he read law. Through his work as clerk he acquired technical training which prepared him for independent practice later, and his constant and intimate contact with his superior gave him an acquaintance with the traditions, the ideals, and the approved procedures of the profession.

Within the past generation, however, this situation has been radically changed. Law schools have developed rapidly. Prospective lawyers are prepared in quantity lots. Instruction has been almost wholly impersonalized by large classes,¹ and there is little opportunity for intimate contact between students and practitioners who exemplify in their lives the best ideals of the profession. Furthermore, the growing complexity of legal problems and the closer relationships between lawyers and powerful business and industrial interests make it increasingly difficult to recognize ethical issues and to act according to the dictates of professional conscience. With these factors in mind many leaders have considered it advisable for law schools to provide definite courses of instruction in the ethics of the profession. This viewpoint is clearly reflected in the following statements:

In that period (before the Civil War) law was relatively simple and static . . . the lawyer was not subject to such powerful and insidious influences—at any rate, the fratricidal competition of later days, with correspondence courses and proprietary law schools turning out graduates far in excess of community needs, had not yet appeared.²

A determined effort has been made by committees of ethics in different states to see to it that either by persuasion or by the compulsion of rules of court, law schools expecting their certificate of graduation to be accepted by bar examiners as the equivalent of a clerkship or prescribed years of study, should prescribe and faithfully carry out a certain number of hours of lectures upon the subject of legal ethics.³

On the other hand, many equally influential leaders assert that changing conditions have not increased the need for systematic instruction in ethics. Their arguments are that a lawyer in order to be professional needs primarily to be a gentleman; that the extended training and moot court experiences provided by many law schools furnish adequate knowledge of professional etiquette; and that definite courses in this subject are usually formal, uninteresting, perfunctory, and ineffective. One correspondent explains this negative attitude as follows:

This lack of interest (in instruction in professional ethics) is occasioned by two views, both of which are erroneous. One view prevalent among the

better schools is that ethics simply refers to gentlemanly deportment and good manners, and that if a young man is at all receptive he cannot go through the university of today without unconsciously becoming imbued with what is necessary in that respect. . . . The other reason is that a good many law instructors seem to regard ethics as merely ideals which cannot be put into practice if one is to become engaged in the professional competition that exists today.⁴

A similar situation exists in the field of medical education. Many leaders believe that the mass production of physicians has so completely eliminated the stimulating contact of the initiate with the practitioner that the problems of professional relationships must be strongly emphasized in definite courses. On the contrary, many feel just as strongly that such formal emphasis is neither necessary nor desirable. They have great faith in the inspirational influence of the physician's traditional devotion to his professional ideals. They believe that if a student does not absorb these ideals without special instruction during the long and rigorous medical course, he is not likely to acquire them by any amount of formal study.

Doubtless other factors have had a bearing upon the present status of ethical instruction in schools of law and medicine. The preceding paragraphs, however, indicate two conflicting trends of influence to which the relatively even division of practice in these schools may be largely attributed.

Are Courses in Professional Ethics Elective or Required?

The number and percent of definite courses in professional ethics which are required and elective are shown in Table 5. Of the 296 schools of all types reporting definite courses, 92 percent prescribe them for all students, whereas only 8 percent offer them as electives. Such courses are required of all students by a substantial majority of schools in each profession, except in the case of business schools. Among schools for teachers, however, 35 percent make these courses elective, which is a considerably larger proportion than is found in most other types of professional schools. This fact doubtless reflects the more liberal

¹ Law School Faculty of Columbia University. *Summary of Studies in Legal Education, 1926-28*. Mimeographed. p. 11.

² Harley, Herbert. "Group Organizations Among Lawyers." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 101: 33; May, 1922.

³ Jessup, Henry W. "The Ethics of the Legal Profession." *Ibid*, p. 16-17.

⁴ Letter from Thomas H. Howe of Chicago, Chairman, Committee on Professional Ethics and Grievances of the American Bar Association.

TABLE 5.—THE PROPORTION OF DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS WHICH ARE REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE

Type of Professional School	Number Offering Definite Courses	Schools in Which Definite Courses Are			
		Required		Elective	
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teaching.....	23	15	65	8	35
Architecture...	9	9	100	0	0
Business.....	6	3	50	3	50
Dentistry.....	32	32	100	0	0
Journalism....	9	8	89	1	11
Law.....	68	61	90	7	10
Medicine.....	29	27	93	2	7
Nursing.....	120	118	98	2	2
Total.....	296	273	92	23	8

Read table as follows: Of the 23 schools for teachers which reported definite courses in professional ethics, 15 or 65 percent require these courses of all students, while 8 or 35 percent offer them as electives. Similarly read figures for other types of professional schools.

elective policy prevailing in schools for teachers, in contrast to the more rigidly prescribed curricula in schools of architecture, dentistry, law, medicine, and nursing.

In What Year of Training Is the Course in Professional Ethics Usually Given?

Facts concerning the year of the training period in which definite courses in professional ethics are offered appear in Table 6. The terms used in answering this item on the questionnaire varied so much that the replies could not be interpreted as simply as desired. However, Table 6 depicts the essential features of the situation.

Although there is considerable diversity of practice even among schools within a single profession, certain tendencies are evident. Schools of dentistry, law, medicine, and teaching tend to place the distinct course in ethics near the end of the training period. On the other hand, most of the schools of nursing place it in the first year, although many offer such instruction in both the first and third years. The latter arrangement is doubtless due

to the recommendation of the National League of Nursing Education.¹

The tendency among most professional schools, except those for nurses, is to put the course in professional ethics near the end of the training period. The advantages of this plan are that the students by this time have developed a background of technical preparation which enables them to appreciate the special standards of conduct of their profession and, as they stand on the threshold of active practice, they are eager to learn these standards, so that, by conforming to them, they may win the respect and esteem of their clients and professional associates. On the other hand there is an advantage in providing ethical instruction in the first year of the course. In this way the habit of thinking in terms of accepted standards may be initiated at the beginning, and strengthened through discussion and practice during the entire course of training. Probably the best plan would include both of these arrangements.

Analysis of Practice in the Schools of Each Profession

Schools of Architecture—The *Standard Minima* adopted by the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture in 1924 stipulates that "Every course should treat of professional practice with special emphasis upon ethics." Of the 22 schools of architecture which answered the questionnaire, 41 percent reported definite courses in professional ethics; 55 percent reported that this subject is given specific attention in other courses; and 4 percent reported no such instruction.² Eleven different courses were mentioned in which problems of professional ethics are specifically included, but only one of these was listed three times or more. This course, entitled Business Relations and Professional Practice, was listed by four institutions.

Schools of Dentistry—Professional ethics is one of the subjects required of Class A dental schools by the Dental Educational Council of America. The course in which this instruction is given is usually 16 hours in length and is

¹ Clayton, S. Lillian, Sub-committee Chairman. "Revision of the Standard Curriculum (Continued): History and Ethics of Nursing." *American Journal of Nursing* 26: 305-09; April, 1926.

² See Table 4.

placed in either the junior or the senior year.¹ Of the 38 dental schools responding to the questionnaire, 84 percent reported definite courses in this subject, and the remaining 16 percent reported specific consideration of it in other courses.² Of those reporting definite courses, however, many indicated that the instruction is a part of a more general course including one or more of the following fields: Dental History, Jurisprudence, and Economics.

Schools of Nursing—The National League of Nursing Education has prepared and recommended, with the endorsement of the American Nurses Association, a thirty-hour course in History and Ethics of Nursing³ and a thirty-hour course entitled Survey of the Nursing Field and Professional Problems.⁴ One or both of these courses have been adopted by practically all schools for nurses throughout the country. Of the 131 such schools from which replies were received, 91 percent reported definite courses in professional ethics; 6 percent indicated specific attention to these problems in other courses; and 3 percent reported either in-

cidental consideration in all courses or no instruction at all.⁵ In addition to the two courses mentioned above, six others were listed as including ethical problems, but of these none was mentioned by three or more institutions.

Schools of Journalism—The *Principles and Standards of Education for Journalism* adopted in 1924 by the American Association of Teachers of Journalism includes this statement: "The professional courses offered in journalism shall afford instruction . . . in the history of journalism, the principles or ethics of journalism (with particular reference to the duties and responsibilities of the journalist to society) and the law of the press." This statement has also been incorporated in the Constitution of the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism as one of the requirements for membership in the Association.⁶

Of the 16 schools of journalism reporting, 56 percent indicated that they provide distinct courses in professional ethics; 38 percent give these problems specific attention in other courses; and 6 percent give them incidental consideration in all courses.⁷ Nine different courses

TABLE 6.—THE YEAR OF TRAINING IN WHICH DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS ARE GIVEN

Year of Training	Type of Professional School								
	Teach- ing	Arch- itecture	Busi- ness	Den- tistry	Jour- nalism	Law	Medi- cine	Nurs- ing	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
First year.....	3	1	1	10	66	81
First and one later.....	1	1	1	2	1	41 ¹	47
Second.....	2	1	4	2	1	10
Second and one later.....	1	1	3	5
Third.....	3	4	19	5	5	36
Third and fourth.....	5	1	1	1	4	2	1	1	16
Fourth.....	3	1	7	7	13	1	32
Senior and last ²	1	6 ³	2	18	5	18	7	3	60
No definite information.....	4	3	2	9
Total.....	23	9	6	32	9	68	29	120	296

Read table as follows: Of the 23 schools for teachers which reported definite courses in professional ethics, 3 offer these courses in the first year; 1 in the first and a later year; 2 in the second year; 1 in the second and a later year; 3 in the third year; 5 in the third and fourth years; 3 in the fourth year only; 1 in the senior or last year; and 4 gave no definite information. Similarly read figures for other types of professional schools.

¹ Twenty-eight of these 41 schools reported their courses as given in the first and third years.
² The number of schools reporting their courses as given in the "senior" or "last" year is listed separately because these terms are ambiguous and may refer to years other than the fourth.
³ One of these six schools reported its course as given in the fifth year.

¹ Letter from W. H. G. Logan, Dean, Chicago College of Dental Surgery and President of the American Association of Dental Schools.
² See Table 4.
³ Clayton, S. Lillian. *Op. cit.*
⁴ Letter from Elizabeth C. Burgess, President of the National League of Nursing Education.
⁵ See Table 4.
⁶ American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism. *Constitution*, 1927, p. 3.
⁷ See Table 4.

in which problems of professional ethics are given attention were mentioned, but Editorial Writing was the only one listed three times.

Correspondence with leaders in the field indicates that here, as in other professions, there is considerable diversity of opinion, with strong convictions on both sides of the question as to the advisability of providing definite courses in professional ethics. The following statement reflects this situation:

The subject (teaching of professional ethics) has been a very important problem before the teachers of journalism for a number of years, and has been thoroughly discussed from time to time at the annual conventions of the teachers of journalism. All teachers in the larger schools, without exception, believe that the teaching of ethics is an important function of the school of journalism, but they do not all agree as to ways and means. Some believe that it should be presented in a separate course; others believe that the topic should be included in every course. So far as I know all the larger schools offer a course, usually for seniors, devoted to the discussion of ethics of journalism. It is not always called ethics. For example, in this school we call it Principles of Journalism. . . . My own feeling is that it is most effective when taken up in connection with the concrete cases as it arises in various courses. However, a general survey of all the problems gathered together during the senior year sends the student out into the profession with definite ideas.¹

Schools of Business and Commerce—Of the 35 schools of business which answered the inquiry, 17 percent reported definite courses in standards of professional conduct; 46 percent reported specific attention to the subject in other courses; 20 percent indicated that it receives incidental consideration in all courses; and 17 percent reported no attention given to it.² Seventeen different courses were listed in which ethical problems are given specific study. Those mentioned by three or more schools were: Accounting, Salesmanship, Cooperation and Business Finance, Marketing, Business

Management and Procedure, and General Ethics.

Correspondence with leaders in this field corroborated the evidence just given as to the diversity of opinion concerning methods of training students in the principles of business ethics. A few quotations are pertinent:

There is no course in professional ethics offered in the Graduate School of Business. . . . If in any of our courses we fail to stir the minds of our students on the ethical implications of the subject they are studying, we are failing to stimulate all-round development. This is an omission we are trying to avoid.³

I have been favorably disposed toward such instruction, but the great majority of business teachers seem to think it can be imparted in connection with the various courses. The result is that it is sadly neglected.⁴

I believe that these courses (business ethics) are worthwhile and nearly everyone of our students who are candidates for the Bachelor of Commercial Science Degree takes a one semester course in Business Ethics.⁵

At the School of Commerce of Northwestern University a foundation has been established for an annual series of lectures on professional ethics. Plans are now under way for increasing the fund with a view to establishing a professorship in business ethics.⁶

Schools of Law—Of the 102 law schools reporting, 67 percent offer definite courses in legal ethics; 17 percent give specific attention to these problems in other courses; and 7 percent give them incidental consideration in all courses.⁷ Ninety percent of the definite courses were reported to be required rather than elective.⁸ They range in length from occasional lectures to a thirty-hour course.⁹ The tendency is for these courses to be given in the last year of training, although occasionally they are given in the first year.¹⁰

¹ Letter from Grant M. Hyde, University of Wisconsin, President of the American Association of Teachers of Journalism.

² See Table 4.

³ Comment on questionnaire returned by W. E. Hotchkiss, Dean, Graduate School of Business, Leland Stanford University.

⁴ Letter from George W. Dowrie of Leland Stanford University, President of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business.

⁵ Letter from J. T. Madden, Dean of the School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance, New York University.

⁶ Letter from Ralph E. Heilman, Dean of the School of Commerce, Northwestern University.

⁷ See Table 4.

⁸ See Table 5.

⁹ See Kansas City School of Law. *Catalogue*, 1928-29. p. 25.

¹⁰ See Table 6.

Although two-thirds of the law schools reported definite courses of ethical instruction, accompanying comments indicated a marked cleavage of opinion as to the necessity and wisdom of such courses, and a very live interest in the question. One group of leaders in the American Bar Association is firmly convinced that definite courses in this subject are essential to the success of those just entering the profession, to the advancement of the profession itself, and to the welfare of society at large. The following statements represent the viewpoint of this group:

In the long schedule of disbarred lawyers . . . will be found many individual cases where men went wrong out of pure ignorance. They applied commercial standards to the practice of a profession simply because they knew no better. Why were they not taught differently? Why wait to disbar, to teach men the elements of their calling?¹

All this serves to illuminate the idea that before entering upon the duties of this great profession, the law student should be indoctrinated or inoculated with these principles of ethics; yet for many years, and up to a few years ago, although appeals were sent to the deans of all the law schools asking them to make compulsory in their schools a course of study in legal ethics, they ignored or balked.²

Thomas H. Hubbard, a member of the committee which prepared the canons of ethics adopted by the American Bar Association in 1908, belonged to this school of thought. He supported his convictions by placing at the disposal of the trustees of the Albany Law School the sum of \$10,000, the income from which was to be applied to lectures on legal ethics.³

As early as 1895 the Committee on Legal Ethics of the American Bar Association recommended that all schools of law should give specific attention to this subject.⁴ In 1905 the recommendation was reiterated and expanded. This time the Bar Association urged that the law schools teach ethics as a required subject;

not as it had previously been presented, in one or two lectures by some busy lawyer, but by systematic and definite instruction.⁵ Since then the ethics committee of the Bar Association has waged a continuous and vigorous campaign to persuade schools to provide such instruction, and a committee of the Association of American Law Schools is now studying the problem.⁶

Twenty-eight states require by statute an examination in professional ethics for admission to the Bar, and four other states stipulate that the applicant shall have pursued a course in this subject prior to his application for the Bar examination.⁷ These statutory requirements are largely the result of the aggressive campaigns conducted by committees on ethics in the American Bar Association and the various state bar associations.⁸

On the other side of the question stand other members of the Bar, thoroughly convinced that definite courses in professional ethics usually fail to accomplish the desired results. Their attitude is represented in the following statement:

We have given much consideration to the proper way of dealing with the subject. Our experience with a formal course in professional ethics has been that students get it up as so much formal material, and the residuum in the form of a permanent impression is not large. On the whole, we found that what seem to be the best results are brought about by exciting the student to think and read on the subject from the beginning of his law school course, and then at the end of his course we provide a series of lectures on the practice of law in which the ethics of the profession are given a prominent place, but are put in the setting of the whole practice of the profession.⁹

Schools of Medicine—In medical schools the diversity of opinion and practice regarding instruction in professional ethics is similar to that in the field of law. Of the 67 schools answering the questionnaire, 43 percent reported definite courses in this subject; 28 percent reported specific attention to it in other courses; 9 per-

¹ Cohen, Julius Henry. *The Law, Business or Profession?* Banks Law Publishing Company, 1916. p. 215.

² Jessup, Henry Wynans. *Professional Ideals of the Lawyer*. G. A. Jennings Company, Inc., 1923. p. 34.

³ Albany Law School. *Catalogue, 1927-28*. p. 18.

⁴ American Bar Association. *Annual Report, 1895*. Vol. 18, p. 14.

⁵ Archer, Gleason Leonard. *Ethical Obligations of the Lawyer*. Little, Brown and Company, 1910. p. 35.

⁶ H. W. Arant, Dean of the College of Law, Ohio State University, is chairman of this committee. A preliminary report of the committee covering current practice regarding instruction in professional ethics in law schools, submitted in November, 1930, presents findings which are almost identical with those of this study.

⁷ Holmgren, E. S., compiler. *Rules for Admission to the Bar*. West Publishing Co. 1928. 211 p.

⁸ Jessup, Henry W. "The Ethics of the Legal Profession." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 101: 24-5; May, 1922.

⁹ Letter from Roscoe Pound, Dean of the Law School, Harvard University.

cent indicated that it receives incidental consideration in all courses; and 20 percent reported no instruction in the subject.¹ Ninety-three percent of the definite courses are required of all students.² They are usually given during the last year of training, but are offered occasionally as early as the first year.³

The distinct courses differ considerably in length and character. They vary from a few occasional lectures given at the convenience of the students and visiting lecturers, to standard courses given at regular hours by regular members of the faculty. Frequently the instruction in professional ethics is combined with such subjects as History of Medicine or Medical Economics and Jurisprudence. Following are some typical descriptions of courses:

A course of lectures is delivered by the President of the Medical Society of the County of Kings explaining the etiquette and ethics of the medical profession.⁴

A series of talks by various members of the faculty. Six hours, Spring Quarter of the fourth year.⁵

The subject of ethics as given in the order of instruction will comprise didactic lectures on general and personal ethics in the first year and on medical ethics in the fourth year. Instruction will be given covering personal hygiene, care of laboratory equipment, general conduct and adaptability for the profession.⁶

This course consists of lectures on the following subjects: History of Medical Jurisprudence; Principles of Medical Ethics; Legal Status of the Physician; Physicians in Court; . . . Some Health Laws of Kentucky.⁷

A study of medical practices from the earliest time to the present day with the factors that have a bearing on the development of modern medicine. The different periods of medical education. A discussion of medical ethics. Four hours a week during first half of the first semester (32 hours).⁸

The following statements reveal the marked diversity of opinion regarding the teaching of ethics which exists among leaders in this profession:

A course in professional ethics *per se* is not given as a separate entity. Such a course would be incongruous. The principles of medical ethics are taught from the day the student begins his medical course until he lays down the cares of life. Every case studied during the undergraduate student years involves questions of professional ethics . . . After graduation the teaching is continued in the physician's contacts with his colleagues and his medical societies.⁹

Yet silent example is not enough for the student of medicine. He wants precept also, explanation after demonstration. And because universities still omit to put any teaching of medical ethics into the curriculum, the students plan ethical instruction on their own accord and call in speakers from the outside. This has happened at Harvard every year in the last dozen or so, and I have no doubt it is the same at many other medical schools, for the students really need it.¹⁰

This course on professional ethics and pastoral medicine is without doubt one of the most valuable adjuncts of the medical curriculum and should be obligatory in every medical school.¹¹

As in the field of law, those members of the medical profession who believe in the value of systematic ethical instruction support their convictions by aggressive propaganda and sometimes by the endowment of lectureships in the subject. In 1925 Dr. George Washington Gay gave Tufts College \$1,000 to establish such a lectureship.¹² The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association has recently made a determined effort to persuade medical schools to include a definite course in professional ethics in their curricula. At a meeting of the Board of Trustees of the Association in November, 1926, a recommendation was adopted expressing the hope that the Council would "undertake to have lectures on medical ethics made a part of the curriculum in every approved medical school." At a business meeting of the Council on February 13, 1927, a report was unanimously adopted, and was subsequently quoted

¹ See Table 4.

² See Table 5.

³ See Table 6.

⁴ Long Island Medical College, Brooklyn, N. Y. *Catalogue*, 1928-29, p. 59.

⁵ University of Colorado, School of Medicine. *Catalogue*, April, 1928, p. 31.

⁶ George Washington University. *Catalogue*, June, 1927, p. 52.

⁷ University of Louisville, Medical School. *Catalogue*, 1928-29, p. 96.

⁸ University of Oklahoma. *Catalogue*, 1928-29, p. 30-31.

⁹ Comment on questionnaire returned by Irving S. Cutter, Dean of the Medical School, Northwestern University.

¹⁰ Cabot, Richard C. *Op. cit.* p. 33.

¹¹ Letter from Frank C. Hammond, Dean of the School of Medicine, Temple University.

¹² Tufts College, Medical School. *Catalogue*, 1927-28, p. 38.

in a letter sent by the Council to all deans of medical schools. This report reads as follows:

The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association recommends to the Association of American Medical Colleges that adequate instruction in the traditions and principles of medical ethics be included in the required curriculum of all medical students. While realizing that the subject is now touched upon in all schools and that its principles can be inculcated by example, yet the Council believes that detailed and sympathetic explanation of the *Principles of Medical Ethics* as formulated by the American Medical Association should be the minimum of the formal instruction given in medical schools.

The Council suggests that the subjects of medical economics, medical jurisprudence, medical history and perhaps also, in some instances, pastoral medicine might be conveniently grouped with that of medical ethics under the general title of the "Social Relations of the Physician" . . .¹

Schools for Teachers

Of the 286 teacher training institutions responding, only 8 percent reported definite courses in professional ethics; 70 percent stated that the subject is given specific attention in other courses; 3 percent reported incidental consideration of it in all courses; and 19 percent reported no instruction in the subject.²

Definite Courses in Ethics—An examination of the catalogue descriptions of the definite courses in professional ethics revealed considerable variation in their content and scope. They vary all the way from courses which are limited to problems of professional relationships to courses including also problems of personal ethics and principles of character education. Of the 23 reported, 15 are required and 8 are elective.³ They are usually given during the latter part of the training period.⁴

The following catalogue descriptions illustrate the general character of these definite courses:

Professional Ethics: Two qualifications of a teacher which have always been important are increasingly receiving attention. His own manners, conduct, and ethical standards must be on a high plane, and he should have a strong sense of professional obligation. The efforts to develop these at-

tributes are crystallized in this course. Given in the senior year, class instruction and discussion are supplemented by assigned and suggested readings and reports of individual students. The aim is to give each student a lofty professional spirit and such standards of action as may well be adopted by children. Required—one period per week for 28 weeks.⁵

Professional Ethics: The purpose of the work in this field is threefold: First, to help in the creation of ideals of personality and procedure, and to make the student sensitive to acts inconsistent with these ideals so that the future teacher may clearly distinguish between right and wrong; second, to teach the principles of social usage and personal conduct; third, to prepare students for developing in children right ideals and habits of action. The accomplishment of the aims indicated above requires a division of the work into distinct courses as follows: (1) a course dealing with personal ethics is planned for the junior year (20 periods); (2) a course in professional ethics for the senior year (20 periods) . . .⁶

Ethical Standards of Teaching: This course is a contribution to the growing profession of teaching. Its purpose is a detailed study of desirable ethical standards in the relations of the teacher to the teaching position, the superintendent and the board of education, the administrators and colleagues, the school, the community and the state; together with a study of the codes of ethics as factors in developing ethical standards. Elective—four term hours.⁷

Public School Relationships: This course is designed to give the students practical advice on the adjustments which they will be called upon to make in the different school situations in which they will find themselves. It has to do with the teacher in relation to her personal equipment, her task, the community, her fellow teachers, the superintendent and other supervisory officials, the pupils, the course of study, the recitation, the teacher's general contacts, and other related topics. Elective—three hours per week, three credits.⁸

Specific Attention to Professional Ethics in Other Courses—Three hundred eighty different courses in which professional ethics are given specific attention were listed by the 200 institutions reporting such courses. Of these 380 courses, 16 were mentioned by three or more schools. Table 7 shows the frequency with which each of the 16 was mentioned.

Incidental comments accompanying many of the questionnaire returns indicate wide differ-

¹ American Medical Association. Council on Medical Education and Hospitals. *Report to the House of Delegates*. May 16, 1927. p. 9.

² See Table 4.

³ See Table 5.

⁴ See Table 6.

⁵ State Normal School. Danbury, Conn. *Catalogue*, 1927-28. p. 19.

⁶ State Normal School. New Haven, Conn. *Catalogue*, 1927-28. p. 26-27.

⁷ Michigan State Normal College. Ypsilanti, Mich. *Catalogue*, 1926-27. p. 111.

⁸ East Carolina Teachers College. Greenville, N. C. *Catalogue*, 1928-29. p. 46.

ences in the adequacy of treatment given to problems of professional conduct in these various courses. In some cases the treatment is evidently very superficial. In others a considerable amount of study and discussion is devoted to the more crucial problems in the field.

It is difficult to see how prospective teachers can obtain a thorough acquaintance with professional standards under the arrangements indicated by the following comments:

Occasional lectures at our chapel exercises constitute the only efforts in this connection.

Special lectures are given the prospective teachers, one each year.

The fact that we offer no definite course does not mean that no attention is paid to this important matter. Assembly talks are given to seniors immediately before graduation.

A series of 2-5 lectures on professional ethics is

given to the group going out as teachers each year.

At least two days are devoted to a study of professional ethics in connection with a course in School Management.

It is our practice to give every student enrolling with the appointment bureau of this university a copy of the state code of ethics. We are also planning to have at least one general meeting of all candidates for teaching positions at which certain items of the code will be discussed.

On the other hand, other institutions are making a serious effort to provide adequate instruction in professional ethics as units of other courses. The following comments are typical:

Professional ethics is an implicit part of all topics treated in our course entitled Professional Problems of Teachers. It is made a separate unit of the course as well.

We do not give a definite course in professional

TABLE 7.—COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS IN WHICH PROBLEMS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS WERE REPORTED AS RECEIVING SPECIAL ATTENTION ¹

Title of Course	Number of Times Mentioned by				
	City Normal Schools	State Normal Schools	State Teachers Colleges	Departments of Education ²	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6
Introduction to Teaching ³	7	20	10	17	54
Administration ⁴	3	2	6	39	50
Principles of Education ⁵	4	4	7	23	38
Practice Teaching Conferences	3	7	11	16	37
Methods and Technic of Teaching	3	7	2	18	30
Organization and Management	5	5	4	13	27
Ethics ⁶		5	6	10	21
Problems of the Teaching Profession ⁷	2	2	3	10	17
Special Lectures	1	4	5	4	14
Sociology		6	3	4	13
Secondary Education			1	8	9
Supervision			1	5	6
Psychology	2	1	2		5
Philosophy of Education	1			4	5
History of Education		1	2		3
School Economy		1		2	3

Read table as follows: Of the 54 professional schools for teachers which reported that problems in professional ethics are given specific attention in the course entitled Introduction to Teaching, 7 were city normal schools, 10 were teachers colleges, and 17 were departments of education. 20 were state normal schools. Similarly interpret figures for other courses.

¹ Includes only those courses mentioned by three or more institutions.
² Departments of education in colleges and universities which grant degrees in education.
³ Includes courses in Introduction to Teaching and Introduction to Education.
⁴ Includes courses in Educational Administration, High School Administration and Elementary School Administration.
⁵ Includes courses in Principles of Education and Principles of Teaching.
⁶ Includes courses in General Ethics, Personality and Character Education, and Education for Citizenship.
⁷ Includes courses in Problems of the Teaching Profession and Professional Relationships.

ethics for teachers. The materials for such a course are dealt with in at least five different courses: Social Ethics, Student Teaching, Technic of Teaching, Philosophy of Education, and State School Law. It is in the course in Student Teaching that professional ethics receives most attention. The impressions obtained in student teaching are reinforced through the course in Technic of Teaching, which parallels the student teaching. We prefer to have our students get professional ethics in a real situation of teaching rather than through a formalized, meaningless course.

It is probable that many of the courses reported as including specific units in professional ethics really give the subject little more than incidental consideration. It would be difficult to avoid the discussion of ethical problems in most of the courses listed in Table 7, even if no separate time allotment were provided for their consideration. The catalogue descriptions of some of these courses did not refer to problems of professional ethics, but most of them mentioned such problems specifically, especially those courses listed under the titles of Introduction to Teaching, Introduction to Education, School and Class Management, Social Problems, and Social Ethics. The description of a course in school law reported by six state teachers colleges in Oklahoma indicates definite consideration of professional ethics. Six state normal schools in New York include this subject in the descriptions of their courses in sociology.

In 1925 a committee was appointed to study the problem of curricula for the state normal schools of Pennsylvania. The report of this committee provided for the specific consideration of professional ethics at three places in the four-year curriculum: (1) in the first year as a part of an introductory course in general problems of education; (2) during the practice teaching period when frequent opportunities occur for practical application of the principles of professional conduct; and (3) in the last year as a part of a course entitled History of Education in Pennsylvania, which includes the work of the state teachers' association and its code of ethics.¹

The diversity of practice indicated in the preceding paragraphs reflects the diversity of opinion regarding instruction in professional ethics held by those who formulate the curricula for prospective teachers. This diversity of opinion was frequently expressed in conference and correspondence. The following statements are typical illustrations:

In my opinion there should be no course in professional ethics. What an immense amount of time could be wasted in mere twaddle over the matter. In the courses that are indicated (elsewhere on the questionnaire) there is opportunity to state all that needs to be stated.²

It seems to me that professional ethics should be an outgrowth of the whole situation. I cannot conceive a course in professional ethics having any intellectual respectability.³

I am convinced that a course in professional ethics is indispensable in teacher training . . . I have tried various schemes. One year I gave the work myself devoting thirty class periods to the subject. Another year we compressed the specific treatment to fifteen class periods. Wherever it is an open question, I should recommend that the subject be treated separately, with fifteen class periods devoted to it. It cannot be done by treating the matter incidentally in other courses.⁴

Requirements of State Departments of Education—The catalogue descriptions of courses in the schools of certain states were so similar as to suggest the probability that the State Department of Education had prescribed instruction in professional ethics. Accordingly, a letter of inquiry was sent to the chief state school official in each of the forty-eight states.⁵ Forty-six replies were received.

Five states, Idaho, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, reported that instruction in professional ethics is a prescribed part of the regular curricula of their teacher training institutions. In Idaho this instruction has been included in a course entitled Teacher Psychology.⁶ In New Hampshire⁷ and Rhode Island⁸ the state codes of ethics have been made officially a part of the program of studies in the state normal schools, and in New Hampshire the subject is included

¹ Report of the General Curricular Revision Committee to the Board of Normal School Presidents. 1926. p. 23-38. See also: State Teachers College, Millersville, Pa. Catalogue. February, 1929. p. 34, 36, 39.

² Comment on questionnaire returned by L. C. Lord, President, Eastern State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois.

³ Comment on questionnaire returned by Frank E. Baker, President, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

⁴ Letter from A. R. Brubacher, President, Albany State Teachers College, Albany, New York.

⁵ The form used is reproduced in the Appendix.

⁶ Letter from W. D. Vincent, State Commissioner of Education, Idaho.

⁷ Letter from E. W. Butterfield, State Commissioner of Education, New Hampshire.

⁸ Letter from Walter E. Ranger, State Commissioner of Education, Rhode Island.

in the examination of teachers for certification. Connecticut and Massachusetts have prescribed definite courses in professional ethics. In Connecticut a minimum of nineteen hours in the second year of the two-year curriculum is assigned to the subject.¹

In 1923 the State Department of Education in Massachusetts published a 32-page *Manual for Teachers* covering the prescribed work in this field. This manual combines problems of professional conduct with those of personality and character development and emphasizes the importance of their consideration in all courses as well as in the definite course required of all graduates. The time allotment suggested is flexible, but twenty 45-minute periods are recommended as the minimum which should be devoted to problems of professional ethics.² The following paragraphs represent the spirit of the plan outlined in this manual:

Essential elements in the establishment of professional ideals may be gained in the normal school from the general life of the school, from assembly exercises, from incidental instruction, and from planned instruction in various courses. Through such means the spirit of professional ethics for teachers may be caught. But the spirit alone is not enough; definite knowledge must be taught. This instruction, moreover, must not be left entirely to chance. In order that standards may become definitely and clearly established, there must be some point or points at which the subject is brought to a focus, as in a distinct course.

A course in professional ethics cannot of itself establish right habits, but it can focus attention upon important problems of great interest to the students. If wisely conducted, it ought to contribute to the development of important elements of personality, improve attitudes, raise ideals, and develop appreciation of the dignity and worth of teaching.³

Twelve of the State Departments of Education, including four in which ethical instruction is prescribed, reported that the present arrangement regarding such instruction is reasonably satisfactory. Seven stated that it is not satisfactory and urged that definite rather than incidental attention be given to the subject.

The following are typical examples of the comments received:

I believe intending teachers should be thoroughly instructed in the ethics of the profession. I do not believe that there is enough subject matter in this field to justify a course. I think from three to six periods will cover it. It might be included in a course in school management, or it could be related to the practice-teaching work. In fact it might be worked into any course in education for seniors.⁴

In Michigan each of the State Teachers Colleges has its own course in teachers' ethics and the only improvement I could suggest would be that these Teachers Colleges get together and have a uniform course. They have that plan in mind and are working it out at the present time.⁵

Definite rather than incidental attention should be given to the subject.⁶

The matter of professional ethics itself is not satisfactory. We wish something could be done to have definite instruction in this subject.⁷

There ought to be fundamental and universal principles with which every teacher should be familiar. Some definite provision ought to be made for making certain that the teachers know those principles.⁸

There is an occasional complaint from superintendents of schools that teachers college graduates are not up on professional ethics and so I believe the present situation is not entirely satisfactory. I believe our teacher-training committees should make some recommendation.⁹

The foregoing paragraphs indicate that a wide diversity of opinion also characterizes the State Departments of Education regarding the arrangements which should be made for acquainting prospective teachers with the standards of the profession.

Differences of Practice and Opinion—Two facts stand out prominently in this survey of provisions for ethical instruction in professional schools for teachers. One is that practically all institutions and leaders in the field agree that prospective teachers should receive training in the basic principles and accepted standards of professional conduct. The second fact is that these institutions and leaders are far from agree-

¹ Letter from A. B. Meredith, State Commissioner of Education, Connecticut.

² Massachusetts State Department of Education. *Professional Ethics in Normal Schools*. Bulletin No. 2. 1923. p. 10.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

⁴ Letter from B. L. Parkinson, Director of Teacher Training, Alabama.

⁵ Letter from Webster H. Pearce, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Michigan.

⁶ Letter from May Trumper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montana.

⁷ Letter from Charles W. Taylor, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Nebraska.

⁸ Letter from James E. Hillman, Director of Teacher Training, North Carolina.

⁹ Letter from T. Howard Winters, Assistant Director of Education, Ohio.

ment as to how such training may best be given. A few schools provide definite courses in the subject, but these vary widely in content, in length, and in the year in which they are offered. Some of them are elective, while others are required of all students. Most of the schools either give specific attention to ethics in certain other courses, or else attempt to give it incidental consideration in all courses. Here also there is a wide diversity of practice. Hundreds of different courses are reported in which professional conduct is said to be given specific attention, but only 16 of these are listed by three or more schools, and none of them is listed by more than 54 of the 200 schools reporting in this category. In many of the courses it appears that the treatment of ethical problems is probably not sufficient to meet the needs of graduates who are about to enter the teaching profession. In other courses these problems receive considerable time and careful attention. On the whole, the available evidence indicates that the present status of instruction in the ethics of the teaching profession is far from satisfactory.

Summary of Practice in the Schools of Eight Professions

This chapter has surveyed the provisions made by the training schools of eight professions for instruction in standards of professional conduct.

Nearly all of the schools included in the study reported some provision for instruction in this field, but these provisions vary widely in character. Forty-two percent of all the schools reported definite courses in professional ethics. Most of these courses are required of all students and are given near the end of the training period. Forty-one percent of the schools reported that they give problems of professional conduct specific attention in other courses. The other 17 percent either ignore the subject entirely or depend upon incidental instruction in all courses.

The diversity of plans for providing ethical instruction reflects the differences of opinion on

the question among leaders in the several professions. Differences of opinion are particularly conspicuous within the fields of law, medicine, journalism, business, and teaching. Although all agree that professional students should be trained to conform to accepted standards, some assert that such training should be wholly indirect and incidental. Others, believing that whatever is taught incidentally is usually taught accidentally, advocate ethical instruction in specific units of certain courses, while many insist that the problems of professional conduct are sufficiently numerous, important, and difficult to warrant separate treatment in a definite, full-fledged course.

Advocates of systematic instruction in ethics have not only provided such instruction in their own institutions, but they have persuaded official organizations in their respective fields to recommend, and sometimes to prescribe, specific attention to ethical problems in all schools of the profession. In at least three instances courses in professional ethics have been underwritten by endowments.

The schools of nursing and dentistry usually provide definite courses in this subject. Schools of architecture, journalism, law, and medicine are more or less evenly divided for and against such courses, while relatively few schools for teachers or schools of business offer separate courses in ethics. The state departments of education in five states now prescribe instruction in standards of professional conduct in their teacher training institutions. Nevertheless, only eight percent of all the schools for teachers replying reported definite courses, whereas seventy percent reported specific provision in other courses. From a superficial consideration of these figures one might conclude that, on the whole, the professional schools for teachers are giving fairly adequate attention to ethical instruction. A more critical study indicates, however, that many of the provisions for such instruction are inadequate, and that in most schools a new and more systematic emphasis upon the subject is needed.

What Arrangements for Instruction in Professional Ethics Should Schools for Teachers Provide?

Three procedures may be employed for determining what instruction professional schools should offer in any given field: (1) an experiment may be conducted whereby the relative merits of various plans may be demonstrated; (2) the opinions of a representative number of recognized leaders in the field under consideration may be studied; and (3) the proposed plans may be evaluated in the light of such accepted principles of curriculum construction as are available.

Demonstration by Experiment

No course in the curricula of professional schools for teachers holds its place at the present time because of its scientifically demonstrated value. In 1920 a comprehensive investigation was proposed by which the relative merits of different types and materials of instruction might be shown,¹ but to date the cost in time and money has been prohibitive. The fact that such an experiment probably would require no less than ten years² places it quite beyond the scope of this study.

Opinions of Leaders

As shown in the preceding chapter, recognized leaders differ widely on the question of desirable provisions for instruction in professional ethics. Some maintain that incidental instruction is adequate; others insist that ethical problems require a specific time allotment as units of certain courses; and still others assert that prospective members of a profession cannot be trained adequately in the ideals and standard practices of that profession unless separate and distinct courses in the subject are provided.

Those who advocate the incidental procedure use the same arguments no matter which profession they represent: that every course in a professional school should train the student in regard to proper professional conduct; that the curriculum is already overcrowded; that

the problems of professional relationships are neither sufficiently numerous nor sufficiently vital to warrant separate treatment; that the inauguration of definite courses in this subject establishes an artificial divorcement of ethical principles from the practical problems of the profession; and that the courses thus created are almost invariably formal, perfunctory, uninteresting, and ineffective.

Likewise, those who advocate definite courses in professional ethics use similar arguments whether they represent business, journalism, law, medicine, or teaching. They maintain that problems of professional conduct are already numerous and vital, and that with the increasing complexity of modern life, they are becoming more important and difficult; that new members of the profession frequently meet with embarrassing, and sometimes tragic experiences simply because they have not been taught the proprieties of the group; that ethics can be taught directly; and that systematic instruction is essential because incidental teaching usually means accidental teaching.

The last two of these arguments involve an important question of educational psychology and educational method. Cabot expresses his conviction on this question very positively:

If ethics cannot be taught, no art can be taught, no literature can be taught, no history can be taught except by rote, no science worthy the name can be taught.³

Charters suggests a similar point of view in the following statement:

The fundamental and somewhat dangerous weakness of the indirect training of character as a by-product of school exercises is its lack of system. Incidental instruction is accidental instruction; and the accidental inclusion of materials in a program of instruction is always inefficient.⁴

Those who advocate the specific treatment of professional ethics as definite units of other courses avoid somewhat the difficulties of the two extreme positions. Their policy eliminates the accidental aspect of ethical instruction, and

¹ Learned, William S., and others. *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*. Bulletin No. 14. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1920. p. 152.

² Evenden, E. S. "Criteria for the Construction of Teachers College Curricula." *Proceedings*, 1926, Vol. 64. National Education Association, 1926. p. 293.

³ Cabot, Richard C. *Op. cit.*, p. 97.

⁴ Charters, W. W. *The Teaching of Ideals*. Macmillan, 1928. p. 164.

provides systematic training without adding another course to the already crowded curriculum, and with less likelihood that the discussion of ethical problems will be divorced from practical life situations.

The data presented in the preceding chapter indicate that leaders in the field of teacher training are not generally inclined to favor separate courses in professional ethics. Most of them evidently believe that specific treatment of these problems in definite units of other courses is sufficient to meet the needs of prospective teachers. However, the relatively even division of practice and opinion on this question among schools of law, medicine, architecture, and journalism, together with the overwhelming trend toward definite courses in schools of dentistry and nursing, make it impossible to draw definite and final conclusions as to the relative merits of these procedures. There is not sufficient agreement to warrant a decision merely on the basis of authoritative opinion.

Moreover, even among those who are agreed upon one or another of these general arrangements, there is a wide range of opinion as to administrative details. How much time should be devoted to the study of ethical problems? In what year or years of the curriculum should this work be placed? If instruction in professional ethics is to be organized as specific units of other courses, in what course or courses does it belong? These and similar questions cannot be answered finally from a survey of present practice and opinion.

Principles of Curriculum Construction

Until an experiment of extensive proportions has been set up and carried through we shall not know definitely what is the best arrangement for instruction in professional ethics. Since the necessary time and money for such an experiment seem prohibitive at present, and since the opinions of leaders in the field differ so widely, the only practical recourse for answering the question is to evaluate proposed plans more or less subjectively in the light of available principles of curriculum construction.

A series of principles for guidance in the construction of curricula in professional schools

for teachers was used in a survey of the Missouri normal schools.¹ Later a revision of these principles was employed in a survey of the state teacher training colleges of Louisiana.² Since then they have been discussed and revised by three groups of graduate students in the field of teacher training.³ They represent, therefore, the composite judgment of a considerable number of specialists in this field.

An abridged statement of these principles follows:⁴

1. The internal character of each curriculum and the constituent forces thereof should be determined by the nature and requirements of the future position which the student intends to fill.
2. The curricula should be differentiated and specialized.
3. Each curriculum should require of each prospective teacher a background in all of the better known fields of human knowledge.
4. The courses of study comprising each curriculum should be continuous in organization and inherently sequential. Courses should not only extend forward, but should also be correlated laterally with other related subjects.
5. Relatively little "free election" should be allowed after the student has selected the type of position for which he wishes to prepare.
6. The constituent courses of a curriculum should be professionalized in character.
7. The curriculum should be extensive enough to give the prospective teacher all of the skills, attitudes, and ideals necessary for the work he is to do.
8. The curriculum should provide materials and activities for developing and strengthening the personal and social equipment of the teacher.
9. All courses should be integrated around the actual work of teaching.

All of these principles apply to the problem under consideration and in keeping with them the following tentative proposals are made:

1. That definite provision for instruction in professional ethics should be made in each curriculum offered.
2. That this instruction should be a prescribed part of every graduate's professional preparation.
3. That incidental treatment of the problems of professional conduct should be given whenever possible in all courses.
4. That the definite units devoted to systematic instruction in professional ethics should be located in at least three places in each curriculum:
 - a. In the first year of training, so that the prospective teacher may develop early the habit of

¹ Learned, William S., and others. *Op cit.*, p. 152.

² Louisiana State Department of Education. *Report of the Survey Commission*. 1924. p. 120-22.

³ Evenden, E. S. *Op. cit.*, p. 290.

⁴ *Ibid.*

thinking and acting in accordance with approved professional standards.

b. During the practice teaching period when frequent opportunities occur for practical application as well as theoretical discussion of problems of professional relationships.

c. During the last months of the training period, when the prospective teacher needs to know the proper procedure for securing a position, and when, on the threshold of active service, he is most eager to know the standards of the profession that he may win the respect and confidence of his employers and fellow workers.

The plan outlined above is expressed in general terms, and is frankly intended to be merely suggestive. Conditions vary so greatly among professional schools for teachers that no single plan for ethical instruction will be suitable for all. The difficulty of finding a time and a place for the program proposed will be greater in a two-year curriculum than in a three or a four-year curriculum. On the other hand, students

enrolled in the shorter curricula generally have greater need for direct instruction in professional conduct since the shorter period of training affords less opportunity for the development of a broad general philosophy of life.

The important thing, of course, is not that the details of any particular plan should be universally adopted, but rather that all professional schools for teachers should provide for each student the most effective program of systematic instruction possible. Whenever necessary and feasible the training period should be lengthened so that fundamentally important subjects like professional ethics may receive more adequate treatment. Wherever possible, definite units of instruction in professional ethics should be provided in at least three places in the curriculum: (1) at the beginning of the training period; (2) in connection with the work of practice teaching; and (3) during the last months of professional study.

PART II

STANDARDS OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT AMONG TEACHERS

CHAPTER III

Selection and Organization of Material

One of the purposes of this study was to prepare a selected and annotated list of standards of professional conduct which may be used as a basis for discussion in teacher training classes and among teachers in service.

The standards themselves were selected, for the most part, from codes of ethics adopted by the National Education Association and by state teachers' associations. The illustrative and explanatory material was drawn partly from the codes and partly from the following sources: (1) reports of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics of the Profession; (2) violations of professional ethics reported by teachers, supervisors, and administrators; (3) books and magazine articles concerned with problems of teacher personnel and (4) the principles of medical ethics and the canons of legal ethics.

Teachers' Codes of Ethics

Thirty-three codes of professional ethics for teachers were analyzed—the code of the National Education Association and 32 codes adopted by state teachers' associations.¹ These codes have been prepared by committees appointed for that purpose and have been adopted by the respective associations as official statements of the standards of professional conduct which their members approve. At least six of them are revisions of earlier codes.² The dates when they were adopted in their present form are indicated in Table 8.

The nature of these codes varies greatly. In length they range from 73 words in the case of Maine to slightly less than 2000 words in

the case of New York. Some consist almost entirely of broad generalities. Others contain a large number of specific admonitions and proscriptions. Most of them include both general principles and specific rules of conduct.

Few of these codes are, strictly speaking, real codes since only four of them provide for enforcement.³ They are at best, as Koos points out, merely the composite opinion of organizations of teachers on what is professional or unprofessional behavior.⁴ They are not, however, to be disparaged on this account, for even though violations are seldom followed by pen-

TABLE 8.—YEARS IN WHICH STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS ADOPTED THEIR PRESENT CODES OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

Year of Adoption	State Associations	Number	Cumulative Number
1915	New Hampshire, Rhode Island.	2	2
1916	Oregon	1	3
1920	Pennsylvania	1	4
1922	Idaho, Iowa, New York, Washington	4	8
1923	Louisiana, Maine, New Jersey, Missouri, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Utah	7	15
1925	Connecticut, Michigan, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Wyoming	6	21
1926	Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Ohio	7	28
1927	Colorado, Kansas	2	30
1929	Mississippi, Nebraska	2	32
1930	Delaware	1	33

¹ The code of the Nebraska Association was adopted in December, 1929, too late for inclusion in the analysis of standards presented in this study. Statements included from the Mississippi code were taken from the 1917 edition. A revision of this code was made in 1929, too late for inclusion in this study. Statements from the Delaware code were taken from the 1928 edition. A revision of this code was made in 1930, too late for inclusion in this study.

Officials of the associations in the remaining fifteen states reported that their associations had no official codes. According to Secretary Roy W. Cloud, the California Association as at present organized has never officially recognized the code originally adopted in 1904. Likewise the code prepared by the Committee of the Wisconsin Association and included in the 1926 Report of the National Education Association's Committee has never been officially adopted by the association.

² Alabama, Georgia, New Jersey, Ohio, Virginia, and West Virginia.

³ The codes of Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania provide for Commissions to handle violations reported, but according to the secretaries of these associations the Pennsylvania Commission is the only one which has functioned.

⁴ Koos, L. V. *Op. cit.* p. 678-9.

alties, comparable to disbarment, these official statements do have behind them the compulsion of the good or bad opinions of the group.

All of these codes have the common purpose of raising professional ideals and of promoting the best possible relationships between teachers and those who are affected by the conduct of teachers. Many of them express this purpose effectively, as the following examples show:

In order that the aims of education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted, that teachers may know what is considered proper procedure, and may bring to their professional relations high standards of conduct, the National Education Association of the United States has developed this code of ethics.—*National Education Association*.

To fortify those teachers who already have a professional code of ethics and who live by it; to furnish a touchstone for those not yet sure of their standard; to inform society what teachers themselves consider to be suitable rules of conduct for those who teach; to be able to serve our fellows to the utmost of our ability—we assemble from various sources the items of this ethical code for the teachers of Alabama.—*Alabama*.

The purposes of this code are: To clarify our attitude toward professional problems; to inspire those new to the profession; to establish a general norm of conduct.—*Ohio*.

In all of the codes it is either stated or implied that the term "teacher" refers to all persons engaged in educational work. The codes of Connecticut and New Jersey state this explicitly. The former document reads: "Throughout the word 'teacher' refers equally to teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents." The New Jersey code states: "The term 'teacher' . . . is intended to include all persons engaged in educational work, whether in executive, supervisory, or teaching capacities." The Colorado code includes separate paragraphs covering the special duties of principals, supervisors, superintendents, and board members. The Michigan code also carries a special paragraph concerning board members.

Criteria Employed in Selecting the Standards

Many of the codes analyzed contain items which reflect merely local, temporary, or purely personal questions of conduct. For the

purposes of this study, only those standards were selected which seemed to have broad and lasting significance for teachers in their professional relationships. The following criteria were used in making this selection:

1. The prescribed conduct should improve the service of teachers.
2. The prescribed conduct should have special significance because the persons involved are teachers.
3. The prescribed conduct should have relatively permanent and universal value among teachers.
4. The prescribed conduct should involve primarily a problem of *professional relationships*, rather than a problem which is limited strictly to the field of personal morality, educational philosophy, or educational method.

Many of the standards selected have not yet received the unanimous approval of the profession. Whether they ever will receive it is problematical. It is hoped that their inclusion here will stimulate discussion, and thus lead to a clearer understanding of the issues involved and perhaps to more general agreement as to their validity.

Frequency of occurrence in the codes has not been used as a criterion for determining the relative importance of the various standards. While the following chapters present figures indicating as accurately as possible the number of codes containing each standard, these figures should not be considered too seriously. The general statements used in many codes make it impossible to determine whether or not they apply to certain specific conduct mentioned in other codes. Furthermore, to use the words of the National Education Association's Committee, "When a State (code) does not condemn a certain practice which is generally considered to be unethical, and which the codes of many states do condemn as unethical, the lack of condemnation does not necessarily mean that the State in question condones such practice. The lack of a statement on the point might mean that this particular State thought the practice in question was so universally condemned by common consent that a formal and written pronouncement on it would be commonplace; again the lack of statement on a certain practice might be the result of oversight; or again, it might mean that the State considers other matters of greater moment."¹

¹ National Education Association, Committee on Ethics of the Profession. Report: *The Ethics of the Teaching Profession*. (Sarah T. Muir, Chairman) July, 1926. p. 21.

The standards selected from the codes have been grouped according to a purely arbitrary classification. This grouping is somewhat similar to arrangements used in several of the codes, but it does not follow any one of them exactly.

Teachers' Attitudes Toward Certain Practices

In considering professional standards of conduct, it is desirable to know something of the attitude toward such standards among the rank and file of the profession. Data of this sort were obtained from a survey conducted by the National Education Association's Committee on the Ethics of the Profession.¹

This committee distributed to a selected list of persons in each state a questionnaire concerning 39 questionable practices more or less common among teachers. The recipient was asked to give his opinion as to whether each practice is ethical or unethical. From the 3145 individuals to whom the form was sent, 1606 replies were received: 646 from classroom teachers; 444 from administrative subordinates (principals, assistant superintendents, and college or university deans); and 516 from chief executives (superintendents of schools and presidents of colleges and universities). A summary of the results of this survey will be found in Table 20 in the Appendix.

This survey revealed a considerable range in the percent of persons agreeing on the various practices. For example, 96 percent agreed that it is unethical for a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a promotion in another community because he does not want to lose her services; whereas on the question of whether it is ethical to do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign, 38 percent replied "Yes," 30 percent replied "No," 30 percent qualified their replies, and 2 percent failed to answer.

On 30 of the 39 questionable practices, however, more than 50 percent of the persons answering agreed that the practice is unethical, while on only 1 practice were 50 percent or more agreed that the practice is ethical.

In the following chapters the discussion of the various standards includes pertinent fig-

ures from this cross section of teacher opinion in every instance for which such figures are available.

Violations of Professional Ethics

To approach from another angle the problem of discovering what teachers regard as accepted standards of professional conduct, a collection was made of statements reporting violations of professional ethics. These statements serve three purposes. First, they provide specific illustrations of failure to conform to principles found in the codes; second, they give some indication of the relative importance of various standards in the minds of educational workers; and third, they suggest the situations in which violations frequently occur.

To obtain this material, mimeographed forms² were distributed to students in six classes of the 1928 Summer Session at Teachers College, Columbia University. The form asked for the salient facts concerning five cases observed by the persons reporting in which professional ethics had been violated.

Four hundred nineteen returns were received, yielding a total of 1627 cases. One hundred thirty-five of these returns were from classroom teachers, 149 from principals or vice-principals, 35 from special supervisors, 62 from superintendents or assistant superintendents, and 38 from persons holding other positions. These persons represented 43 different states.³

These cases of violation were classified in general according to the categories used in analyzing the official codes of ethics. Table 9 shows the number of reported violations in

TABLE 9.—MAIN CATEGORIES OF VIOLATIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS REPORTED IN THIS STUDY

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. In relations with pupils.....	108
2. In relations with parents.....	2
3. In relations with community.....	70
4. In relations with associates.....	1185
5. In relation to the profession.....	23
6. In connection with applications, recommendations, contracts, and termination of employment.....	205
7. In relations with teachers' agencies and publishing and supply houses.....	13
8. Miscellaneous—vague and indefinite....	21
Total Number.....	1627

¹ Muir, Sarah T., chairman. "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession—Abstract." *Proceedings*, 1929. Vol. 67. National Education Association, 1929. p. 182-90.

² This form is reproduced in the Appendix, p. 86.

³ See Appendix, Table 25.

each main category. Further analyses of the items within the main groups are presented in the following chapters.

It is probably significant that more than two-thirds of the 1627 violations reported were concerned with relationships between teachers and their own professional associates. Caution should be observed, however, in the interpretation of these frequencies of mention. Although they are reported, they cannot be considered accurate indices of either the actual frequency of occurrence or the seriousness of the violations. A high frequency of mention may mean that teachers are inclined to resent or disapprove that particular act more than others, or it may mean merely that they are more accustomed to think of that particular act as a violation of professional ethics. Nevertheless, it is probable that a frequently mentioned violation either occurs relatively frequently or is recognized as particularly reprehensible. For example, the fact that 504 of the 1627 violations reported were "criticisms of associates" suggests the probability that this practice is either more prevalent or more strongly detested among teachers than any other item reported. Practices of this kind surely deserve special attention in courses of teacher preparation.

In connection with this collection of specific violations of standards, a somewhat similar study of violations reported by the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics of the Profession¹ should be mentioned. On

the questionnaire used in obtaining teachers' judgments concerning 39 questionable practices, the teachers were also asked to list the six violations of professional ethics which they considered the most frequent and the most serious among members of the teaching profession. The 1606 persons replying listed 327 different unethical practices, these having a total frequency of 4670. Table 10 shows how these were distributed among the seven major categories used in the study. A list of the 53 specific types of violations which were mentioned 10 times or more will be found, together with their frequencies of mention, in the Appendix, Table 21.

It is impossible to make a completely satisfactory comparison of the results in these two studies because of certain differences in the classification of violations. A general comparison of Tables 9 and 10, however, reveals that the two studies are in substantial agreement regarding the relative frequency of mention in the broad categories of violations. First in rank by an overwhelming majority are those unethical practices which occur in the relations of teachers to one another and to the profession at large. Second in rank are those occurring in connection with the seeking and filling of positions, including applications, recommendations, contracts, and termination of employment. The third most frequently mentioned group involves the relations of teachers with pupils, parents, and community.

TABLE 10.—MAIN CATEGORIES OF UNETHICAL PRACTICES REPORTED IN A STUDY BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION'S COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION¹

Practices in Connection With:	Number of Different Practices	Frequency of Mention By			
		Classroom Teachers	Administrative Subordinates	Chief Executives	Total
1. Training and professional growth.....	6	92	52	61	205
2. Seeking and filling positions.....	38	226	220	405	851
3. Salaries and promotions.....	22	78	74	84	236
4. Contracts and tenure.....	18	130	108	145	383
5. Relations of teachers to each other and to the profession at large.....	124	1019	623	653	2295
6. Relations with the public and pupils.....	94	281	183	207	671
7. Miscellaneous.....	25	16	5	8	29
Total.....	327	1842	1265	1563	4670

Read table as follows: Under the heading of "Training and Professional Growth," 6 different unethical practices were listed. These 6 different practices were reported 92 times by classroom teachers, 52 times by administrative subordinates, 61 times by chief executives, and 205 times by all three groups combined. Similarly read figures for the other major types of unethical practices.

¹ Adapted from Table 5 in 1929 report of Committee on Ethics of the Profession of the National Education Association. See Muir, Sarah T., chairman, *Op. cit.* p. 188.

¹ Muir, Sarah T., chairman. *Op. cit.* p. 184-90.

In the following chapters all statements concerning specific violations of ethical standards refer to those collected in the present investigation. For two reasons no further reference is made in the text to the corresponding data obtained by the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics. First, the detailed classifications used in the two studies varied so widely as to preclude significant comparisons. Second, the violations collected by the Committee on Ethics were not actual descriptions of specific practices occurring within the immediate experience of the persons reporting. In the present study, on the other hand, a special effort was made to obtain *bona fide* examples of violations which might be used to illustrate concretely the standards of conduct presented.

General Method of Presentation

It is not the purpose of the chapters which follow to propose a new code of ethics but

rather to present in convenient form material from which those preparing to enter the profession and others interested in the problem may develop their own codes of professional conduct.

A modified form of the "case method," used in many textbooks and schools of law, has been employed in the presentation of this material. Excerpts from the codes furnish official statements of certain accepted standards. Data from the study by the National Education Association's Committee on the Ethics of the Profession throw light on the extent to which these standards are approved by representatives of the profession at large. The reported violations furnish concrete illustrations of conduct considered improper for teachers. Finally, a number of quotations from the professional standards of law and medicine permit certain comparisons between teaching and two of the oldest and best established professions.

General Principles of Conduct

None of the codes of ethics analyzed in this study attempt to prescribe proper conduct for all of the specific situations which confront teachers in their professional relationships. Some codes contain a relatively large number of specific admonitions or proscriptions. Others include very few. It would be impracticable, if not impossible, to mention in any one code all of the various situations in which the conduct of the teacher affects his own success and the welfare of the profession in general. All of the codes, therefore, contain certain broad generalizations which are intended to cover a multitude of unspecified situations. These principles indicate the general traits of character which teachers should manifest in all of their professional relationships. This chapter reviews briefly these personal qualities and general principles of action.

Each of the thirty-three codes implies, and thirty of them specifically state, that the teacher should be a person of high moral character. The following statements are typical:

1. Teachers should regard themselves as examples for pupils and so conduct themselves that no just reproach may be brought against them. Where liberty of conscience is not concerned, a teacher should stand ready to make personal sacrifice because of the attitude of the community. Every teacher should be, first, a good citizen, upholding the highest standards and ideals of the community in which he lives. In the school he should be, in his attitude toward his work and his superiors, a model of cooperation, justice, honesty, and those other character-building qualities which youth so surely discerns and as eagerly, though unconsciously, absorbs.—*Connecticut*.

2. Teachers should present not only in conduct and in faithful service but also in well-retained health and in social attitude, a worthy example to their pupils and to the community.—*Ohio*.

3. The teacher owes it to his pupils to keep himself physically fit, morally straight, and to cultivate the virtues of patience, courage, justice, truthfulness, and serenity.—*Wyoming*.

4. The teacher should be neat and cleanly in person and of noble mind. He should be faithful in the discharge of duty, able after closest examination to respect himself . . . In his business relations his conduct should be such as to dignify his profession.—*Iowa*.

5. The teacher touches life at many points, and touches it at its most receptive period. He needs, therefore, to be alive to many interests. . . . He

must know the finer things, have a passion for them, and further still, a passion for leading others to see and love them. Whatever it is permitted others to be, he must be a genuine man. He must be noble in order to draw out nobility in others. He must be true, in order to show how manly it is to be true. In other words, he must be an embodiment of what he would have his pupils become. . . . A womanly modesty or a manly dignity should characterize teachers in all their relations to the community. A lack of one of these qualities may, by causing a lack of respect, seriously interfere with a teacher's success. . . . The teacher should respect the customs, the traditions, the moral and religious sentiments of the community in which he labors.—*South Carolina*.

6. It is the duty of teachers to conduct themselves in such a manner socially that they may bring neither criticism nor suspicion upon themselves and their profession.—*Michigan*.

General Principles

From the large number of general statements in the codes, six broad principles of conduct for teachers may be derived:

1. The teacher's conduct should be such as will keep him physically and mentally fit.

2. The teacher's conduct should be a worthy example for his pupils.

3. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon himself.

4. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon the profession.

5. The teacher's conduct should conform in general to the accepted standards of the community in which he teaches.

6. The teacher's conduct should contribute to harmony and efficiency in all of his professional relationships.

In connection with these general principles of conduct, two practical questions arise: (1) Is the teacher under obligation to maintain a higher standard of personal conduct than members of other professions in the same community? and (2) To what extent should the personal conduct of the teacher be controlled by the moral and social standards of the community in which he teaches?

The *Canons of Professional Ethics* for lawyers state that "a lawyer will find his highest honor in a deserved reputation for fidelity to private trust and to public duty, as an honest man and as a patriotic and loyal citizen." They also admonish members of the profession to "aid in guarding the Bar against the admission

to the profession of candidates unfit or unqualified because deficient in either moral character or education.”¹ The *Canons of Judicial Ethics* specify that “a judge’s official conduct should be free from impropriety and the appearance of impropriety . . . and his personal behavior, not only upon the Bench and in the performance of judicial duties, but also in his every day life, should be beyond reproach.” They also stipulate that “he should be conscientious, studious, thorough, courteous, patient, punctual, just, impartial, fearless of public clamor, regardless of public praise, and indifferent to private, political or partisan influences.”²

The *Principles of Medical Ethics* state that “the obligation assumed on entering the profession requires the physician to comport himself as a gentleman and demands that he use every honorable means to uphold the dignity and honor of his vocation.” They also specify that he should be “‘an upright man instructed in the art of healing.’ Consequently, he must keep himself pure in character and conform to a high standard of morals. . . . ‘He should also be modest, sober, patient, prompt to do his duty without anxiety; pious without going so far as superstition, conducting himself with propriety in his profession and in all the actions of his life.’ (Hippocrates)”³

The foregoing statements indicate that the standards of personal and social conduct for other professions are similar to those established for teachers. However, two factors operate in the case of teachers which do not apply with equal directness in other professions. First, one of the definite responsibilities of every teacher is the development of the ethical character of his pupils. He works directly with boys and girls at an age when example is stronger than precept. His efficiency depends in large measure upon his personal influence on his pupils, and this in turn depends not only upon his expertness in the art of instruction but also upon his conduct and reputation out-

side as well as inside the schoolroom. “The sins of the teachers are the teachers of sins.”⁴ This idea has been well expressed by Herbert Hoover:

... The public school teacher cannot live apart; he cannot separate his teaching from his daily walk and conversation. He lives among his pupils during school hours, and among them and their parents all the time. . . . His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an exceptional standard of conduct.⁵

In the second place, the teacher is a public servant. He is employed by the community to do a particular task. While it is not advisable for the public to bind its teachers with minute prescriptions regarding either the technics of their profession or the details of their personal lives, the community has a right to choose whom it will employ; and it will usually employ those who in their private lives, as well as in their professional relationships, conform in general to the moral and social standards of the community.

Occasionally teachers owe it to themselves, their profession, and the public to resent and resist the rigid and puritanical censorship which some communities exercise over the conduct of their teachers.⁶ If teaching is to be a profession which will attract the finest young men and women of each generation, those who enter it must be allowed to live normally independent lives. They should be expected to conform to the generally accepted standards of propriety, but should be as free from the harrowing limitations of narrow-minded bigotry and provincial prejudice as are the members of other vocations.⁷ On the other hand, it should be remembered that in most states a teacher may be dismissed for any cause that renders him unfit, and that not only a good character but a good reputation is essential to the greatest usefulness in his position.⁸

Teachers usually recognize the desirability of conforming to the generally accepted social

¹ American Bar Association. *Canons of Professional Ethics*. Nos. 32 and 29.

² American Bar Association. *Canons of Judicial Ethics*. Nos. 4 and 34.

³ American Medical Association. *Principles of Medical Ethics*. Chapter II, Art. 1, Sec. 1 and 3.

⁴ Quoted by Anderson, Earl William. *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 246. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 78.

⁵ Hoover, Herbert. “Education as a National Asset.” *Proceedings*, 1926. Vol. 64, National Education Association, 1927. p. 729-30.

⁶ Anderson, Earl W. “Hamstringing Our Teachers.” *Atlantic Monthly* 145: 390-7; March, 1930. See also: Ewing, Stephen. “Blue Laws for School Teachers.” *Harpers Monthly Magazine* 156: 329-38; February, 1928.

⁷ Marsh, J. Frank. *Op. cit.*, p. 163.

⁸ Allen, Ira Madison. *The Teacher's Contractual Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 304. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. p. 69, 71.

and moral standards of the communities in which they work. Sixty-five percent of those replying to the questionnaire circulated by the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics stated that it is unethical for teachers "to engage in a practice of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve"; whereas only 7 percent reported that they believed such procedure ethical, and 25 percent qualified their replies.¹

Of the 1627 violations reported by teachers in the present study, only 52 were classified as "disregard of the social standards of the community."² Although late hours, immodest dress, dancing, chewing tobacco, gambling, and drinking were mentioned, the only violations cited more than twice were swearing, smoking, and indiscreet social relations between teachers and pupils. These were mentioned 4, 8, and 22 times respectively. The following are typical statements:

1. Two men teachers persisted in smoking in the men's restroom during the school day. At the end of the year they were asked to leave.
2. A certain football coach smoked cigarettes in the gymnasium while coaching his team. The community was very much opposed to it.
3. A teacher accepted the attentions of a high school boy whom she was teaching.
4. A man teacher persisted in courting senior girls and taking them to dances which lasted until the early hours of the morning. The teacher was dismissed at the end of the year.

In regard to social relationships between teachers and pupils, Marsh says:

Well established policies growing out of the experience of our most successful school systems warrant the condemnation of courtships between teachers and pupils.³

The fact that relatively few violations were reported under the heading of "disregard of the social standards of the community" should not be interpreted to mean that these problems are not important. Few problems are more complicated, and experience has shown that they are almost always crucial when they occur, because communities do not usually overlook violations of their traditional standards of behavior. The general principles suggested on page 32 of this chapter indicate the social and

personal standards to which the public expects members of the teaching profession to conform, and those who vary from them will frequently find it necessary to defend and justify their actions. Marsh sums up this situation concisely in these words:

The teacher's success in her work and her consequent happiness depend to a rather large extent on the respect and confidence with which she is regarded in the community. Her social habits affect this opinion very decidedly. It is for this reason wise for her to conform to the social standards of the community, regardless of her personal attitude toward these standards.⁴

General Attitudes and Traits

While many of the codes mention various attitudes and character traits in connection with certain definite relationships, others mention them merely as abstract qualities having general application. The desirable qualities mentioned are listed in Figure 1.

Few undesirable attitudes are mentioned in the codes, doubtless due to the desire to have these documents emphasize the positive aspects of character. Occasionally the teacher is admonished not to be conceited, cynical, envious, grouchy, jealous, pessimistic, spiteful, suspicious, or tyrannical.

Violations of General Proprieties

All of the 1627 violations reported in Table 9, Chapter III, could be cited as illustrations either of failure to exemplify the desirable general traits listed in Figure 1, or of failure to conform to the more specific, concrete standards which are discussed in later chapters. Most of them are more significant when used to illustrate lack of conformity to specific standards. On the other hand, some of them are particularly useful in attaching definite meanings to abstract qualities, because they show certain specific situations in which teachers frequently fail to exemplify the ideal qualities desired. Accordingly, a number of violations having special reference to certain abstract qualities are cited below:

Jealousy:

1. Jealousy over fancied preference led one teacher to circulate malicious rumors about another.

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 35.

² See Table 12, Chapter V.

³ Marsh, J. Frank. *Op. cit.*, p. 165.

⁴ Marsh, J. Frank. *Op. cit.* p. 164.

2. Because of jealousy a superintendent reported certain so-called irregularities to the State Department in order to give another superintendent a bad name with the Department.

Lack of Tact:

- 1. A teacher tried to raise an argument with the superintendent of schools on some school issue before bystanders as church was dismissing on Sunday night.
- 2. A woodshop teacher told at every opportunity that he was the only one in his department who was competent to organize the work.
- 3. A teacher constantly harped upon the fact that she was the only one on the faculty who had come from a city and graduated from a city high school.
- 4. A teacher spent a great deal of time boasting about his accomplishments to unsophisticated students whom he could easily impress.

Selfishness:

- 1. The principal of a high school, acting as chairman of the schedule committee of a county basketball league, used his position to frame the schedule so as to give his own team every advantage possible.
- 2. A teacher was selfish in sharing school equipment with other teachers, such as victrola, books, printing press, etc.

Partiality and Prejudice:

- 1. A principal kept a teacher from promotion because of personal grievances against her.
- 2. A principal complained about a teacher's work. Upon investigation it was found to be a case of religious prejudice with little truth in the complaint.

Discourtesy:

- 1. A principal told a teacher to "shut up" before a class of pupils. This caused lack of respect for the principal among both teachers and pupils.
- 2. A superintendent lost his temper and shouted a teacher to silence in a faculty meeting.
- 3. A coach insulted the opposing coach and the umpire at the end of a baseball game.
- 4. Certain teachers interrupted the speaker at a professional meeting by getting up and leaving

simply because it was 3:45 o'clock, the regular closing time for school.

5. A supervisor went into a classroom during the presentation of a lesson. She took the lesson out of the teacher's hands and conducted it in an entirely different way. The children were given the impression that the teacher's method was wrong.

Dishonesty:

- 1. A teacher created a financial obligation with no expectation of payment.
- 2. A superintendent promised (orally) a certain salary to teachers in June, and denied having made such promise in September.
- 3. A superintendent promised an applicant that he would do all he could for her, and then at the time of election did not even present her application to the members of the board.
- 4. A supervisor told a teacher she was doing satisfactory work and then recommended her for dismissal.
- 5. Two teachers in the absence of the principal went to the office and looked up the ratings of the other teachers in the school.
- 6. Teachers were allowed ten days sick leave with pay. Some teachers stayed out of school on days when they were not ill, thinking they were fooling the school authorities.
- 7. A teacher, after being out of school all day because of illness, attended a dance in the evening and remained at home next day because of illness.
- 8. A teacher who was excused from a regular building meeting to attend a lecture left the city early to attend a week-end party.
- 9. A teacher filled out attendance record at institute as present full time when she was present only part time.
- 10. Teachers are expected to attend the meetings of the State Teachers' Association because they receive full salary for the two days of the convention. One teacher attended only the dance in the evening and none of the meetings.
- 11. A teacher married in a system where marriage automatically discharges. She kept her marriage a secret until newspapers disclosed the fact.
- 12. A teacher taking an extension course paid another to answer all the questions.

FIGURE 1.—DESIRABLE ATTITUDES AND TRAITS

The Teacher Should Be			
Alert	Fair	Modest	Reverent
Altruistic	Faithful	Neat	Sensitive to Humor
Approachable	Generous	Noble	Serene
Charitable	Happy	Openminded	Strong (Physically)
Clean	Honest	Optimistic	Sympathetic
Cooperative	Idealistic	Patient	Tactful
Courageous	Impartial	Patriotic	Tolerant
Courteous	Just	Poised	True
Democratic	Kind	Positive	Truthful
Dependable	Loyal	Progressive	
Dignified	Magnanimous	Pure (Morally)	

13. Tests were sent out with directions that they were not to be opened until a certain day. One teacher opened the tests and drilled her pupils on the questions. As a result, the children in that school ranked high.

14. A principal falsified the attendance register by marking a boy present when he was absent and working, in order to place him on the baseball team.

15. A grade teacher, upon protest by a mother and pupil that the latter's grade in arithmetic kept her off the honor roll, raised the grade.

16. A high school teacher weak in ability to control classes obtained poor examination results in elementary algebra and deliberately raised several marks to improve her own chances for retention.

17. A teacher systematically went through a pile of finished drawings by pupils in Grade I and "touched them up" for the supervisor to examine.

18. A teacher wrote a composition for a child. The composition won a prize. The child knew he had not written the composition and reported the affair to his parents. The mother came to school and traced the affair to the English teacher.

19. A superintendent made false statements to a service club in connection with a bond campaign.

20. A teacher boasted to others that she always kept a few well-planned lessons on hand for the supervisor's visits.

This chapter has discussed briefly the general attitudes and character traits which various codes of ethics designate as desirable for teachers to possess. Many of these are so vague and indefinite as to be of very limited value as guides to desirable conduct. Code-makers are coming to recognize this fact and are endeavoring, both in the revision of existing codes and in the preparation of new ones, to make their statements of standards as concrete and specific as possible. A few general principles are necessary to cover the large number of situations which are not mentioned specifically, but the greater proportion of any code should deal with concrete situations in which right conduct is desired. This chapter has suggested six general principles of conduct for teachers. The following chapters will analyze these in terms of more specific and definite standards.

CHAPTER V

Standards of Conduct in Relations with Pupils, Parents, and Community

This chapter presents a selected list of standards of conduct which, according to the various codes, the teacher should recognize in his relations with pupils, parents, and community. Each of these standards is accompanied by illustrative statements from the codes. In connection with each standard which involves a practice covered in the study by the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics of the Profession, data are quoted to show the proportion of teachers who judged the practice to be unethical.¹ In addition, many of the standards are made more definite and meaningful by examples of their violation in specific situations. Finally, the material on standards of conduct for teachers is frequently supplemented by corresponding statements from the official standards of the legal and medical professions.

The extent to which the standards for teachers are specifically mentioned in the 33 codes is shown in Table 11. The number of violations reported in connection with each standard appears in Table 12.

The Welfare of the Child

The teacher should recognize that the welfare of the child is the principal obligation of his profession. Twenty-one of the 33 codes specify that the welfare of the child is the primary responsibility of every teacher. Personal gain and pleasure, community responsibilities, and even the mastery of subject matter are designated as subordinate interests, while service to the child is given first place. The following statements illustrate this point:

1. The highest obligation of every member of the teaching profession is due to those who are under his professional care.—*Pennsylvania*.
2. The teacher's first duty is to his pupils. Their interest must not be sacrificed upon the altar of selfishness, community responsibilities, or pleasure.—*Wyoming*.
3. It is the duty of the teacher to teach children, not mere subjects.—*Alabama*.
4. The first duty of teachers is to safeguard and bring to the highest state of perfection the physical,

intellectual, aesthetic, moral, social, and so far as possible, the spiritual endowment of their pupils.—*New Hampshire*.

5. It is the duty of the teacher to consider service to the children paramount, rather than financial reward.—*Colorado*.

6. In adopting a comprehensive set of ethical principles, it is hoped that the Louisiana Teachers' Association will keep uppermost the child as the only reason for an educational system.—*Louisiana*.

Individual Differences Among Pupils

The teacher should respect the individuality of each pupil and should train it according to its requirements. Ten of the codes stipulate that the teacher should deal with each child according to its individual requirements. At first glance this injunction may appear to be a question of pedagogical method rather than of professional ethics.² Further consideration, however, reveals the fact that it involves a fundamental professional relationship. It recognizes that each child is entitled to the opportunity of developing himself to the limit of his capacity. It is a warning against the dangers of impersonalism inherent in mass production,³ and is a reminder that the benefit to society is greatest when the personal interests and needs of each individual are recognized and respected. The following statements from the codes are typical:

1. The teacher should consider the different interests, aptitudes, abilities, and social environments of pupils.—*National Education Association*.
2. They (teachers) should always be mindful of the varied dispositions, characteristics, powers, and environmental conditions of children as determining the methods of treatment.—*Louisiana*.
3. He (the teacher) should study pupils not only in the group, but also in their individuality, so as to develop wisely that individuality. In other words, respect the personality of each and train it according to its requirements.—*South Carolina*.

The following are representative of the violations of this standard reported:

1. A teacher insisted on a boy going home and putting on better clothes, which he did not possess.
2. A boy of Syrian and Slavic parentage was failed because he did not talk loudly enough.

¹ For a summary of judgments on 39 such practices, see Appendix, Table 20.

² Miller, George F. "Chaff in the Code of Ethics." *Phi Delta Kappan* 12: 171; April, 1930.

³ "Teacher or Factory Hand." *Atlantic Monthly* 145: 500-2; Apr., 1930. See also: *Journal of the National Education Association* 19: 171-2; June, 1930.

TABLE 11.—CODES OF ETHICS WHICH SPECIFY VARIOUS STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RELATIONS WITH PUPILS, PARENTS, AND COMMUNITY

Standards	N. E. A.	Alabama	Colorado	Connecticut	Delaware	Florida	Georgia	Idaho	Iowa	Kansas	Kentucky	Louisiana	Maine	Massachusetts	Michigan	Mississippi	Missouri	New Hampshire	New Jersey	New York	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Oregon	Pennsylvania	Rhode Island	South Carolina	South Dakota	Texas	Utah	Virginia	Washington	Wyoming	Total Number
1. To recognize that the welfare of the child is the principal obligation of the teacher.	X	X	X	X	...	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	21
2. To respect the individuality of each pupil and to train it according to its requirements.	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	10	
3. To deal justly and impartially with every child.	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	8	
4. To be sympathetic and courteous toward his pupils.	X	X	X	5	
5. To hold inviolate confidential information regarding his pupils.	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	...	X	...	X	X	12	
6. To refrain from tutoring for remuneration pupils of his own classes.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8	
7. To refrain from imposing his religious or political convictions upon his pupils.	X	X	2	
8. To maintain cooperative relations with parents.	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	...	X	...	X	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	18	
9. To participate actively in the community life. .	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	21	
10 To refrain from becoming aligned with factions in the community.	X	X	X	X	7	
11. To refrain from belittling in any way the community in which he has accepted a position.	X	1

Impartiality

The teacher should deal justly and impartially with every child. Eight codes specify that fair and impartial treatment by teachers is the right of every child. Exhibitions of prejudice or preference because of differences in intellectual ability or social standing should have no place in the relations between a teacher and his pupils. The following statements are typical:

1. In instructional, administrative and other relations with pupils, the teacher should be impartial, just and professional.—*National Education Association.*
2. Teachers should deal justly with every child without prejudice or preference.—*Ohio.*
3. The true teacher will strive to place whatever educational facilities the state can afford within easy reach of even the humblest of citizens.—*Louisiana.*

Of the fourteen violations of this standard reported, the following are representative:

1. A teacher had two pupils of approximately the same ability whose work was below the passing grade. She passed one because of friendship and failed the other.
2. Certain teachers eliminated pupils from the Regents' Examination who appeared to have little

TABLE 12.—REPORTED VIOLATIONS OF STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RELATIONS WITH PUPILS, PARENTS, AND COMMUNITY

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. Failure to recognize the individuality of each child.....	3
2. Failure to deal justly and impartially with each child.....	14
3. Unsympathetic and discourteous attitude toward pupils:	
a. Discouraging pupils by harsh criticism.....	24
b. Calling pupils insulting names.....	12
c. Giving discourteous replies to questions.....	3
d. Threatening pupils, shouting at them and using physical force in discipline.....	11
4. Failure to hold inviolate confidential information.....	35
5. Tutoring for remuneration pupils of his own classes.....	4
6. Imposing private views on pupils.....	2
7. Lack of tact in meeting criticism of parents.....	2
8. Failure to participate in community life.....	3
9. Disregard for social standards of the community.....	52 ¹
10. Becoming aligned with factions in the community.....	15
Total Number.....	180

¹ For discussion of these violations see p. 33-34.

chance of passing. These teachers did this in order to assure themselves of a high marking average in the Regents' Department, without considering the welfare of the pupils.

3. A teacher refused to allow a pupil to continue in a certain course because of personal feeling.

Sympathy and Courtesy

The teacher should be sympathetic and courteous toward his pupils. Five codes stipulate that the general virtues of sympathy and courtesy should be applied specifically in the teacher's treatment of his pupils. Some typical statements are:

1. The teacher should be approachable. He should show his sympathy for the child in such a way that the latter may feel that in the teacher he has a personal friend.—*South Carolina.*
2. The teacher should always be courteous, kind, and sympathetic.—*Iowa.*
3. My attitude towards children will be sympathetic but not irrational; kind but not coddling.—*Utah.*

No man or woman should enter the teaching profession without a deep interest in and a genuine sympathy with children. The circumstances under which the teacher works make it easy for him to lapse into discourteous habits which are detrimental to both teacher and pupil. The nervous strain of teaching often produces an irritability and a sharpness of retort which would not be tolerated by clients in any other field. The inhibitions which usually prevent discourtesy between adults are often absent in the relationship of teacher and pupil, and the very intimacy which exists in the teacher-pupil situation frequently leads to an unfortunate laxness about courteous proprieties.

Frankness is usually a virtue, but brutal frankness is a vice, which the teacher should avoid as scrupulously as does the physician, whose ideal in this regard is plainly stated:

A physician should give timely notice of dangerous manifestations of the disease to the friends of the patient. He should neither exaggerate nor minimize the gravity of the patient's condition. He should assure himself that the patient or his friends have such knowledge of the patient's condition as will serve the best interests of the patient and the family.¹

Teachers frequently find it necessary to call a pupil's attention to his own shortcomings,

¹ The American Medical Association. *Op. cit.* Chapter I, Section 3.

but there is no excuse for the careless, flippant, and discourteous remarks which teachers often employ.

Of the fifty violations of this type reported, the following are typical illustrations:

1. An instructor used sarcasm extensively and the pupils became reluctant to recite.
2. A teacher said to a boy early in the year, "You are a failure. You cannot be promoted."
3. A teacher used a poorly written English theme, but one which represented a pupil's best work, as an example before the class of everything which should not be done in such a composition.
4. A teacher of mathematics told certain students that they were too "dumb" to learn mathematics.
5. A teacher called her pupils such names as "little simpleton," "little nut," and "good-for-nothing."

Confidential Information

The teacher should hold inviolate all confidential information concerning his pupils. Twelve of the codes for teachers condemn the release of confidential information regarding pupils as a thoroughly unprofessional practice. Here are some representative statements of this standard:

1. The professional relations of the teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous guarding of confidential and official information as is observed by members of other long established professions.—*National Education Association.*
2. The teacher will hold inviolate matters of a purely professional and private nature, such as the intelligence rating of his children, or other data which might reflect upon the lives and opportunities of the children under his charge. Such matters should be kept as sacred by the teacher as the physician and the lawyer would keep the professional secrets of their own profession.—*Colorado.*
3. Teachers should consider information concerning the mental, moral, physical, and financial limitations of parents and pupils in confidence and not discuss them in a way to embarrass parents or pupils.—*Georgia.*
4. Teachers should never indulge in remarks with pupils or before classes concerning the peculiarities or shortcomings of other pupils.—*Louisiana.*

The corresponding specifications for physicians and lawyers are interesting and suggestive:

Patience and delicacy should characterize all the acts of a physician. The confidences concerning individual or domestic life entrusted by a patient to a physician, and the defects of disposition or

flaws of character observed in patients during medical attendance should be held as a trust and should never be revealed except when imperatively required by the laws of the state.¹

I will maintain the confidence and preserve inviolate the secrets of my client.²

Ninety-three percent of the teachers who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics stated that it is unethical "to discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents."³

Thirty-five violations of this standard were reported. The following are typical statements:

1. A parent's confidence concerning his child was discussed with another parent by the principal.
2. A teacher discussed with parents an experiment being conducted by the Educational Measurements Department and gave out facts which were misinterpreted, causing considerable disturbance and ill feeling.
3. A teacher, after a mental test had been given in her room, told various people the intelligence quotients of their neighbors' children.
4. A teacher discussed the poor mental preparation of various children with a fellow teacher before the whole class and referred to some of them as being 'stupid,' 'ignorant,' and from 'mean, low parentage.'
5. A teacher talked to one pupil about another pupil's faults.
6. A teacher made an unkind remark about the parent of a child before the class.

Tutoring Pupils of His Own Classes

The teacher should not tutor for remuneration the pupils of his own classes. Eight codes stipulate that it is unprofessional for a teacher to accept remuneration for giving outside help to students of his own classes. Five of these codes add the phrase "except by special permission of the school authorities."⁴ These statements are typical:

1. The sincere teacher will not accept remuneration for tutoring his own pupils in subjects which he teaches them. There is grave danger of bringing the profession into disrepute by this practice.—*Wyoming.*
2. It is unprofessional for a teacher to tutor pupils of his own classes for remuneration, except by special permission of the school authorities.—*Massachusetts.*

¹ The American Medical Association. *Op. cit.* Chapter I, Section 2.

² The American Bar Association. *Canons of Professional Ethics.* "Oath of Admission."

³ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 16.

⁴ Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, and South Dakota.

Four cases of violation of this standard were reported. Of the teachers responding to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 67 percent stated that the practice referred to is unethical, 8 percent said it is ethical, and 24 percent qualified their answers to the question.¹

Imposing Religious or Political Views Upon Pupils

The teacher should refrain from imposing his religious or political views upon his pupils. This practice is mentioned specifically by only a few of the codes. The Utah document definitely condemns the imposition of religious convictions upon pupils, and the code of the National Education Association warns against unnecessary and ill-advised controversies which may jeopardize the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. The New Jersey and New Hampshire codes stipulate that although teachers do not forfeit their right to their own social, political, and religious beliefs, they should maintain them in an unobtrusive and dignified way.² This viewpoint is well expressed in the code of the National Education Association:

The schoolroom is not the proper theater for religious, political, or personal propaganda. The teacher should exercise his full rights as a citizen, but he should avoid controversies which may tend to decrease his value as a teacher.

While this advice is sound in general, it may, if carried to extremes, devitalize the character as well as the work of the teacher. The whole question of academic freedom has a highly significant bearing upon the progress of scientific thought and the welfare of society in general.³ Teachers and pupils alike must be free, and must be encouraged, to discuss certain types of controversial issues in an unprejudiced and impartial manner.⁴ Otherwise, the art of thinking will languish, and the many evils which beset society will continue undisturbed by the light of honest criticism. Dewey has recently raised the question of the right of

the teacher to discuss controversial matters as one of the major issues confronting the public schools today,⁵ and the Committee on Ethics of the American Association of University Professors has called attention to the fact that among teachers no worthy end can be achieved without an attempt to educate or influence others.⁶ A satisfactory solution will not be forthcoming until teachers as a professional group recognize that a reasonable amount of independence of thought and speech is a universal right worth fighting for. Lee reports that 48 percent of the teachers of social science included in his study stated that they avoid all controversial issues in their classes.⁷ Such a situation is unfortunate.

However, it is one thing to discuss controversial issues without partiality or undue emotion, and quite another thing to attempt to force one's convictions upon others. The latter practice is vicious, and should be carefully avoided by teachers on all occasions. Ninety-two percent of the teachers replying to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics stated that it is unethical "to teach one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils."⁸

Only two violations of this standard were reported. One of these is particularly suggestive:

A teacher used the class time to expound specific political and religious views and ridiculed persons not holding these views.

Cooperation with Parents

The teacher should maintain cooperative relations with parents. Eighteen of the codes mention cooperative relations with parents as being essential to efficiency in the work of the school. Teachers are advised to maintain such relations by keeping parents informed regarding the attendance and progress of their children; by communicating these facts candidly but tactfully; by meeting the criticism of parents with courtesy and

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 18.

² See section on *Politics and Factions*, p. 43-44.

³ Brubacher, A. R. *Teaching: Profession and Practice*. Century Co., 1927. p. 106.

⁴ National Education Association, Research Division "Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 7: 173-276; September, 1929. "Can Social Issues Profitably Be Taken Up in High-School Social Science Classes?" p. 210.

⁵ Dewey, John. *A Series of Questions Relating to the Duties and Responsibilities of the Teaching Profession with Reference Especially to Taking Decided Positions on Important Social and National Problems*. (Presented at the meeting of the National Council of Education, June 28, 1930.)

⁶ Seligman, Edwin R. A. "Propaganda by Public Utility Corporations." *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, 16: 349-68; May, 1930.

⁷ Lee, Baldwin. *Issues in the Social Studies*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. p. 169.

⁸ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 17.

patience; and by participating in organizations designed to promote cooperation between parents and teachers. The following statements from the codes are illustrative:

1. The teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between the home and the school.—*National Education Association*.

2. The parents' viewpoint should be appreciated. It may not be accepted, but it must not be ignored.—*Florida*.

3. It is the teacher's duty to seek in every way the cooperation of parents; to show no partiality on account of the high social standing of some parents, or lack of sympathy and kindness, on account of the lack of high social standing of others. He should be especially considerate of ignorant and unreasonable parents. He should keep parents informed about the progress or lack of progress, the attendance or lack of attendance of their children. The teacher should tactfully make suggestions as to conditions suitable for study, when studying is to be done at home; should advise as to suitable equipment in books and other things needed by the child for the work to be done. All parents need information on these points. The teacher should welcome the visits of parents to the school, and should endeavor to create in them a personal interest and pride in the success, not only of their own children, but of the whole school; should enlist their interest in adorning the school grounds, in protecting the school property, and in making the school the center of interest to the whole community.—*South Carolina*.

4. . . . the duty of teachers to parents is to seek their acquaintance, to cooperate with them in the education of their children, to become informed of the home life and conditions by friendly visits, and in all other respects to manifest an interest in the individual child. Above all, a teacher should be frank, as well as sympathetic, in dealing with parents. Criticism by parents should be received with courtesy and patience.—*New Hampshire*.

5. All teachers should establish friendly and frank relations of cooperation with pupils and parents and support organizations for that purpose.—*Ohio*.

Participation in Community Life

The teacher should participate actively in the life of the community. Twenty-one of the 33 codes specify that active participation in worthy community activities is a professional duty of teachers. These statements are typical:

1. In his relation to the community, the teacher should be an example of the value to society of an educated citizen. So far as may be consistent with the best performance of his specific duties as a teacher, he should actively identify himself with all movements of civic and social interest.—*North Carolina*.

2. The teacher's second duty is to the community which employs him. He should interest himself in its problems and take an active part in its civic, social, and religious life.—*Wyoming*.

3. Teachers should support all efforts for the betterment of the community, for they are the foundation builders of it. Through daily contact with the children, a teacher gleans the essential needs of the community, the activities that will lead the community to a higher physical, moral, and spiritual plane. Knowing these needs, a teacher should give unstinted support to worthy efforts. To support an effort does not always mean to finance it, or to be an active worker in it. As a teacher is a personage of standing in the community, his advice and counsel are often accepted and followed. With inspiring words, he can lead an activity to success; by his attitude he can blaze a trail to cultural heights that others in the community will seek to travel.—*Connecticut*.

4. Inasmuch as the public schools belong to all the people of the community, it is essential that teachers form contacts with all those groups with whom sympathetic understanding of educational problems should be cultivated, or with whom a more active cooperation may secure a larger service to the life of the community or the state.—*Washington*.

In connection with this standard and the one which follows, two important questions deserve attention: (1) How far is the teacher under obligation to participate in community life? and (2) How far should the teacher be permitted to participate in community life?

As a citizen the teacher has both the right and the responsibility of participating actively in political, religious, and social activities. As an educated person he has an added responsibility in such matters, and in his capacity as a public servant, the community has a right to expect certain service from him along these lines, particularly in the direction of furthering the cause of popular education. On the other hand, the proviso which appears in the Connecticut Code—"To support an effort does not always mean to finance it or to be an active worker in it" is a significant and subtle protest against the undue pressure often brought to bear upon teachers in some communities. The teacher's primary job is the instruction of children; and it is unfair to expect him to spend all of the time outside of school hours in performing miscellaneous tasks which frequently can be done quite as well by others whose vocations are less exacting than teaching.¹ While the contacts formed by the teacher

¹ See Dewey, John. "What is the Matter with Teaching?" *Delineator* 107: 5-6, 78; October, 1925.

through participation in community activities frequently help to promote educational welfare, it is doubtful whether his obligation in this regard is significantly greater than that of other educated citizens of the community.

The *Canons of Professional Ethics* of the American Bar Association contain no statement as to the responsibility of lawyers for participation in community activities. The *Principles of Medical Ethics* specify only a limited number of community duties which physicians as good citizens and as professionally trained individuals are under obligation to perform:

Physicians, as good citizens and because their professional training specially qualifies them to render this service, should give advice concerning the public health of the community. They should bear their full part in enforcing its laws and sustaining the institutions that advance the interests of humanity. They should cooperate especially with the proper authorities in the administration of sanitary laws and regulations. They should be ready to counsel the public on subjects relating to sanitary police, public hygiene, and legal medicine. Physicians, especially those engaged in public health work, should enlighten the public regarding quarantine regulations; on the location, arrangement, and dietaries of hospitals, asylums, schools, prisons, and similar institutions; and concerning measures for the prevention of epidemic and contagious diseases.¹

Few would seriously question the physician's obligation to perform certain extra services to the community, over and beyond his regular practice, along those lines for which he is peculiarly fitted by training and experience. Similarly, few would question the responsibility of the teacher for participating in worthy community activities insofar as his time and strength permit, but the time has passed when the teacher should be looked upon as a "community nurse maid"² subject to the beck and call of every social welfare movement. His specialized training enables him frequently to assume a leadership in many community affairs, but his first duty is to his pupils and their welfare must not be sacrificed upon the altar of community responsibilities.³

However, participation in community activities often helps the teacher to serve the school.

It broadens his outlook upon life and yields contacts with other leaders in the community which enable him to advance the cause of education. Six of the codes specifically mention this responsibility.⁴ The following statements are typical:

1. It is the duty of the teacher to be a loyal citizen of the community . . . and to lead others to a realization of the educational needs of the community.—*Alabama*.

2. It is the duty of teachers and their organizations to keep the public informed as to the fundamental importance of universal democratic education and the needs and problems of the school and the profession.—*Ohio*.

3. The teaching profession must assume a large share of responsibility for making common school education available to all and for the eradication of illiteracy.—*Washington*.

Of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 79 percent stated that it is unethical for a teacher "to fail to participate in activities for community betterment."

Below are a few statements in which violations of this principle were reported:

1. A teacher did not attend any meetings of the Parent Teacher Association. Neither did she take part in the extra-curricular activities of the school.

2. A teacher spent many week-ends out of town instead of cooperating with the superintendent in activities of the community related to the school.

3. Certain teachers showed an attitude of disrespect and disregard for the affairs of the small community where they were teaching.

Politics and Factions

The teacher should avoid aligning himself with factions in a community. Participation in community activities, although highly commendable in certain circumstances is not without complications and dangers. The first duty of the teacher is to the children under his care. Other activities must invariably be subordinated to this primary responsibility. Although the codes insist that the teacher should exercise his full rights as a citizen, they also condemn undue political ambition, participation in controversies⁵ which precipitate ill feeling, and

¹ The American Medical Association. *Op. cit.* Chapter III. Sections 1 and 2.

² Walsh, Matthew J. *Teaching as a Profession*. Henry Holt and Co., 1926. p. 271.

³ See section on *The Welfare of the Child*, p. 37.

⁴ Alabama, Iowa, Ohio, Rhode Island, Texas, and Washington.

⁵ See the discussion of academic freedom in the section *Imposing Religious or Political Views Upon Pupils*. p. 41.

alignment with factions in the community. This point of view appears clearly in the following typical statements:

1. The teacher should exercise his full rights as a citizen, but he should avoid controversies which may tend to decrease his value as a teacher.—*National Education Association.*

2. The duty of refraining from undue political ambitions and activities is especially enjoined upon all teachers. This item, however, shall never be construed as discouraging the exercise of the franchise; and the eminent propriety of teachers holding public office of an educational character is hereby recognized.—*Louisiana.*

3. Every member of the teaching profession, because of his special relationship to the school board of his district, should carefully refrain from all political activity in connection with the election of school directors in his district, except the casting of his ballot.—*Pennsylvania.*

4. It is incumbent on teachers loyally to acknowledge all the duties and obligations of citizenship, and to discharge them both in letter and spirit . . . Teachers are and should be the servants of the people, without regard to distinctions of political party, religious faith, or other matters which are brought into issue and upon which individuals honestly disagree. Teachers are fully entitled to liberty of conscience, but it is unprofessional for them to become partisans upon issues which divide the community.—*New Hampshire.*

In a similar manner the American Bar Association warns judges against aggressive participation in political affairs:

While entitled to entertain his personal views on political questions, and while not required to surrender his rights or opinions as a citizen, it is inevitable that suspicion of being warped by political bias will attach to a judge who becomes the active promoter of the interests of one political party as against another. He should avoid making political speeches, making or soliciting payment of assessments or contributions to party funds, the public endorsement of candidates for political office, and participation in party conventions.¹

There is considerable division of opinion among teachers as to their professional prerogatives in political matters. Of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 30 percent stated that it is unethical "to do more than to vote for a candidate in a political campaign;" 38 percent stated that such practice is ethical; and 30 percent qualified their answers.² Doubtless there are occasions when school people may and should exert their influ-

ence to secure the election of certain candidates. However, it is usually advisable for teachers to avoid flaunting their political preferences and convictions before the public.

Of the 15 cases reported in which teachers appeared guilty of unwise factional activities, the following are typical:

1. A principal passed out handbills to pupils in regard to a coming election.

2. A superintendent lost his job because he joined the Ku Klux Klan.

3. An assistant principal proceeded to get members elected to the school board for the purpose of ousting the principal and getting himself appointed to that position.

4. A school superintendent asked his teachers to permit distribution of election cards for certain school board members in the homerooms on the day before election.

5. A superintendent asked a supervisor to go to the polls on election day and work for those Board of Education candidates who were known to be favorable toward the present educational policy in the district, and upon whose election depended the reappointment of both the superintendent and supervisor.

Disparaging the Community

The teacher should refrain from belittling in any way the community in which he is employed. This obligation is evidently considered so obvious or so widely accepted that most of the codes make no specific mention of it. The Florida code is the only one which contains a definite reference to the matter. The statement is brief and direct:

It is unethical for the educator to belittle in any way the community in which he or she has accepted a position.

This standard is much more important than the scant attention given to it in the codes would indicate. Teachers frequently find fault with various characteristics of the communities in which they are employed, particularly in the smaller towns and villages. The practice usually arouses resentment in the loyal residents of the community, and reacts unfavorably upon the teacher and the teaching profession as a whole. Constructive criticism is often necessary and valuable, but petty, malicious, or purely destructive criticism usually does more harm than good.

¹ The American Bar Association. *Canons of Judicial Ethics.* No. 28.

² See Appendix, Table 20, Item 34.

CHAPTER VI

Standards of Conduct in Relations With Associates

Codes of ethics for teachers place special emphasis upon the need for harmonious and cooperative relations among the teachers in every school system. This chapter presents the specific standards of conduct under this heading which were derived from an analysis of the codes. The discussion and illustration of these standards follow the same general plan as in the preceding chapter.

General Statements

Several of the codes cover the relations of the teacher with his associates by very general and vague statements. For example, six documents state that teachers should apply the Golden Rule in all their professional relations and activities.¹ Such general qualities as loyalty, cooperation, confidence, respect, fairness, frankness, honesty, friendliness, generosity, sympathy, charity, goodwill, sincerity, and courtesy are usually emphasized as essential in relationships with associates. These generalities are not as useful to the student of professional ethics as are the more specific standards which follow, but they are interesting as illustrations of the type of material found frequently in many of the codes.

The following are typical of these generalizing statements:

1. As guidance for the conduct of teachers in their relations to one another, the Golden Rule is adequate and applies with explicit force and beauty.—*North Carolina*.

2. The teaching profession differs from the other learned professions in the fact that the service to the community is not individualistic like that of the lawyer, the physician, and the minister. The personal service of the teacher cannot be efficient without cooperation, without solidarity, without perfect unity of effort. . . . The very A B C of professional loyalty is mutual confidence and faith in one another.—*New York*.

3. It is the duty of every teacher to regard every other teacher as a fellow craftsman and as entitled to all the rights, courtesies, and emoluments that usually obtain in other professions with recognized standards.—*New Hampshire*.

4. The most important obligation of individual teachers toward themselves and coworkers is to be imbued always with the spirit of loyalty. This ideal involves sacrifice for the common good; cheerful

cooperation with one's colleagues; the exclusion from one's nature of all tendencies to envy, jealousy, rivalry, and distrust.—*Michigan*.

In many of the codes the general obligations mentioned above are applied to certain specific types of situations. Table 13 shows the extent to which each of these specific standards is included in the thirty-three codes. Table 14 indicates the number of violations reported in each type of situation.

Assisting in the Formulation and Execution of Policies

The teacher should assist in developing and carrying out the policies of the school system. Eighteen of the codes stipulate that teachers have an obligation to aid in the formulation and execution of official school policies. By implication as well as by direct statement administrators are admonished to give teachers a share in the development of these policies. This does not mean, of course, that the administrators of a school system should not have final authority in establishing policies, or that teachers have a right to ignore policies of which they do not personally approve. Once a policy has been officially adopted all members of the staff should adhere to it as long as it remains in effect. The codes of three states specify that a teacher should resign if he cannot accept in good faith the policies adopted.²

The following are typical statements of this standard:

1. The superintendent should be recognized as the head and professional leader of the school system. He in turn should give his teachers an opportunity to collaborate in the solution of the professional problems. When a policy has been determined upon, it should be loyally supported by all teachers.—*Georgia*.

2. Those who are responsible to the public for the conduct of the school should attempt to acquaint the teacher with the larger purposes of the organization and to furnish him with such assistance and guidance as will enable him to cooperate intelligently. The teacher should make a sympathetic effort to understand those purposes and, regardless of personal feeling or private opinion, so long as he continues a part of the organization, faithfully to carry them out. Teachers, however, should be

¹ Alabama, Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina.

² New Hampshire, Ohio, and Rhode Island.

TABLE 13.—CODES OF ETHICS WHICH SPECIFY VARIOUS STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RELATIONS WITH ASSOCIATES

Standards		N. E. A.	Alabama	Colorado	Connecticut	Delaware	Florida	Georgia	Idaho	Iowa	Kansas	Kentucky	Louisiana	Maine	Massachusetts	Michigan	Mississippi	Missouri	New Hampshire	New Jersey	New York	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Oregon	Pennsylvania	Rhode Island	South Carolina	South Dakota	Texas	Utah	Virginia	Washington	Wyoming	Total Number	
1. To assist in determining and carrying out the policies of the system.....		X	X	X	X	X	X	X							X	X					X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X					18	
2. To support his associates in conversation with others within and without the system.....				X	X	X	X						X														X									5
3. To help his associates with constructive advice and helpful ideas.....			X		X	X				X			X		X	X			X	X						X		X	X				X		17	
4. To give due credit for assistance received and achievements accomplished.....					X															X		X	X												4	
5. To assist associates to secure merited promotion.....		X			X	X	X					X												X		X	X	X	X				X		11	
6. To refrain from interfering in any way, unless official position warrants, in the schoolroom affairs of an associate.....		X																						X				X								4
7. To refrain from shifting responsibility to another which should be borne by self.....													X																							1
8. To hold inviolate confidential information regarding his associates.....				X							X	X					X			X				X		X	X						X		9	
9. To avoid gossip about or adverse criticism of fellow-teachers.....		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X					25	
10. To transact all business through proper channels.....		X		X									X				X		X	X			X	X		X	X	X							9	
11. To organize properly and leave for successor such information, data and records as may be needed in beginning the next year's work.....							X	X				X								X	X									X					5	

encouraged to make suggestions and to offer criticisms through proper channels. A school system in which only one mind is allowed to think and only one voice to speak is ethically as well as educationally indefensible.—*North Carolina*.

3. Genuine cooperation presupposes a share in the formulation of policies as well as in their execution. Before any radically new program, either for study content or pedagogical methods, is introduced, there should be laid before the teachers an early and clear explanation of that program, together with the reasons which have led the superintendent to propose the innovation; they should be allowed ample opportunity for broad-minded discussion and constructive criticism, given always in the spirit of earnest inquiry for the good of the pupils. When a new program is actually adopted, after such preliminary consideration, all teachers should cooperate loyally in its execution.—*Connecticut*.

4. Effectiveness in school work can be obtained only by concert of action. Misunderstandings and differences of opinion, both between colleagues and between superiors and subordinates, are inevitable; but these, when arising, should be promptly composed by frank and straightforward conferences. In these conferences, whether of two or many, it is entirely proper, and even obligatory, that one should maintain his own convictions with dignity, earnestness, and persistency. The right of decision lies either with the superior or with the majority, as the institutional organization may provide. Acceptance of such decision is a duty, but in no sense demands or supposes repudiation of one's own opinions. Acceptance should, however, be in good faith and there should be no echoes outside the conference. The only allowable alternative to acceptance is resignation from office.—*Rhode Island*.

TABLE 14.—REPORTED VIOLATIONS OF STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RELATIONS WITH ASSOCIATES

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. General improprieties.....	257
2. Failure to give opportunity for assisting in the development of policies.....	7
3. Failure to assist in carrying out policies of the system.....	111
4. Failure to support associates.....	71
5. Failure to help associates with advice and helpful ideas.....	31
6. Failure to give credit for assistance and achievements.....	53
7. Failure to assist associates to secure merited promotion.....	7
8. Interfering in schoolroom affairs of associates.....	26
9. Shifting responsibility to others.....	6
10. Failure to hold confidential information inviolate.....	35
11. Criticism of associates.....	504
12. Failure to transact business through proper channels.....	75
13. Failure to organize and leave adequate data for successors.....	2
Total Number.....	1185

Of those who responded to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 54 percent stated that it is unethical "for school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies." Eighteen percent stated that this procedure is ethical, and 26 percent qualified their replies. Eighty-five percent reported that it is unethical "to fail to support school policies until they are changed even though one does not agree with them."¹

Among the violations reported, seven cases were cited in which teachers were not given opportunity to participate in developing policies. The following are typical illustrations:

1. A supervisor handed out a "cut and dried" program of activities for five kindergarten groups within her range of supervision, and rebuked any teacher who varied from it by a "hair's breadth."

2. A superintendent refused to cooperate with a principal who desired to conduct an experiment which might result in a change of school policy. The principal, however, went ahead as best he could and the results of his experiment proved valuable. The superintendent then issued a bulletin on these results but failed to give proper credit to the principal.

3. In a teachers' meeting devoted to the subject of salaries, two supervisors took charge and dominated the meeting. The teachers were quick to see that the supervisors wished to adopt their own plan, and therefore did not oppose the latter because they feared unpleasant consequences.

One hundred eleven cases were cited in which teachers and other staff members failed to assist in carrying out the policies of the system. The following statements are typical:

1. A teacher objected to turning in reports to the office which would assist in keeping proper attendance records.

2. Two teachers made no pretense of getting to school at the designated time, fifteen minutes before the students' tardy bell.

3. A teacher felt no responsibility for conforming to the rules of her building. She constantly violated these rules by being tardy, by doing clerical work during class time, and by visiting the rooms of other teachers during school hours.

4. In a certain system the official policy permitted supervisors to visit classrooms without being announced beforehand. One principal sent a pre-arranged signal to her teachers to inform them that the supervisor had arrived and would probably visit their rooms within the next few hours.

5. A teacher, knowing that the principal was absent from the building, dismissed her class half an hour early.

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Items 21 and 23.

6. A school system adopted a new textbook in history after careful study by a group of history teachers. After the adoption, one of the older teachers who had not favored the change discussed it with her pupils in such a way as to make them feel that they were under a handicap in being required to use the new book.

Support of Associates

The teacher should support his associates in conversation with others both inside and outside the system, particularly in matters of school discipline. Five of the codes specify that it is a professional duty to uphold and defend one's co-workers in discussions with other people. The following statements are typical:

1. It is the duty of the teacher to cooperate with his associates in the work when discussing the schools with outsiders in order that his social influence may at all times contribute a wholesome school sentiment in the community.—*Colorado*.

2. It is the ethical duty of all educators to strive to maintain the professional dignity, good name, influence, and honor of all within the system . . . by maintaining the authority and dignity of their coworkers before everyone.—*Florida*.

3. In all matters of right, it is the duty of superintendents, principals, and teachers to support one another for the best interest of the children in the schools.—*Louisiana*.

This standard does not imply that teachers should feign hearty approval of a fellow-worker's actions if the latter is clearly in the wrong. It means, rather, that teachers should be quick to emphasize the good things which others are doing, and particularly to defend their colleagues against unjust accusations. Of those who answered the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 90 percent stated that it is unethical "to fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked." Fifty-six percent reported that they consider it unethical "for school officials to take the side of pupils against teachers," while 39 percent qualified their replies.¹

Seventy-one cases were reported in which a member of the staff failed to give his associates reasonable support. A few typical statements follow:

1. A superintendent encouraged a principal to be strict in the enforcement of discipline. When a son

of a member of the Board of Education received the same disciplinary treatment as other pupils, his complaints caused the superintendent and principal to be called before a meeting of the board. The superintendent failed to uphold the principal under these circumstances for fear of unpleasant consequences to himself.

2. Two teachers complained that a certain child was causing disturbances regularly. The superintendent called the child's parents to discuss the matter in his office. When asked to state their complaint before the parents, the teachers denied that they had any cause for complaint or had requested help.

3. A principal gave children permission to do certain things which their teacher had previously ruled against. When told by a pupil about the teacher's ruling, the principal replied, "I am the principal and I tell you that you can."

4. A principal gave a teacher permission to punish a certain child, and then refused to back the teacher in the face of the child's angry parents.

Shifting Responsibility

The teacher should accept full responsibility for things which he says and does. This important standard is mentioned specifically in only one code, that of Louisiana:

No teacher is ever justified in shifting responsibility to another that should be borne by himself.—*Louisiana*.

The following statements are typical of the violations reported:

1. An irate parent called on a teacher to demand why her child had not been promoted. The teacher sought to quiet the parent by stating that she would have promoted the child but that the Research Department forbade it because of the child's low rating on achievement tests.

2. A certain principal frequently made remarks of this kind to his teachers: "The superintendent wants this done. I don't agree, but I'm not the boss"; or "You had better get this done. The superintendent will be here tomorrow."

Giving Constructive Advice and Helpful Ideas

The teacher should aid his associates by giving constructive advice and helpful ideas. Seventeen of the codes stipulate that teachers have an obligation to assist their colleagues with advice and counsel, and to share with them helpful ideas and methods.² Six codes state that the teacher is entitled occasionally to statements of his professional record, whether it be favor-

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Items 26 and 28.

² See "Helping the New Teacher," *Ohio Schools*, 8: 5; January, 1930.

able or unfavorable.¹ Four specify that administrators and supervisors should express an opinion upon work observed after each professional visit, pointing out excellencies as well as deficiencies, and recommending ways to eliminate each fault pointed out.² The following statements are illustrative:

1. Teachers should at all times be ready to assist one another by giving information, counsel and advice and by such services and acts as teachers can perform without detriment to themselves or their work. Such reasonable service should be regarded as a professional duty for which remuneration, beyond actual expenses, should not be accepted.—*New Hampshire*.

2. Whatever ideas, methods, plans, or devices may have been perfected by an individual teacher, by groups of teachers or by teachers and supervisors jointly, within any one system of schools, should always be regarded as open to the profession and should be freely available to all who may desire to secure them.—*New Jersey*.

3. It is the duty of principals and supervisors to make every effort to correct faults and weaknesses of teachers before reporting their faults to the superintendent.—*Colorado*.

4. Each teacher is entitled from time to time to a statement of his professional record, whether favorable or unfavorable, and may properly make requests for such statement.—*Pennsylvania*.

5. A supervisor of classroom work should observe the following ethical principles: (a) he should express an opinion upon the work observed following each professional visit; (b) he should recommend ways to remove every fault pointed out and allow reasonable time for improvement; (c) he should not hesitate to point out excellence in the work as well as points needing improvement; (d) he should not criticize a teacher before other teachers or pupils.—*Oklahoma*.

A parallel standard for the medical profession appears in the *Principles of Medical Ethics*:

Experience teaches that it is unwise for a physician to treat members of his own family or himself. Consequently, a physician should always cheerfully and gratuitously respond with his professional services to the call of any physician practicing in his vicinity, or of the immediate family dependents of physicians.³

Thirty-one violations of this standard were reported by teachers. A few examples follow:

1. A supervisor was asked for help concerning disciplinary problems. She replied, "That is your problem; work it out as best you can."

2. A superintendent made no comment on a teacher's work until the end of the year, and then told her that it wasn't good enough and that he couldn't recommend her for another year.

3. A supervisor entered a classroom, observed a lesson, and then left without saying a word to the teacher.

4. A principal in criticizing his teachers always noted their faults but never mentioned the good things they did. The result was that the teachers considered him a "bear."

Credit Due for Achievements and for Assistance Received

The teacher should give due credit to his associates for their achievements and for assistance received from them. Four of the codes specify that due credit should be given for assistance received and for achievements accomplished. The following are typical statements of this standard:

1. If a teacher originates an efficient method, he should share it; those who use it should give credit to the initiator.—*Connecticut*.

2. Between teachers and executives there should always be found the confidence which arises out of a complete understanding and the mutual attitude of being co-workers in a great cause. Each should maintain a justifiable pride in the work of the other. Each should feel that his or her success is impossible, in the fullest sense, without the corresponding success of the other.—*New Jersey*.

Of the 53 violations of this standard reported, the following are typical:

1. A teacher obtained suggestions and plans from another teacher, and then presented them to her superior officers as her own ideas.

2. The head of a department presented as his own work a course of study which had been prepared entirely by one of his teachers.

3. A superintendent published over his own signature some reading material prepared by his primary teachers. He failed to acknowledge the source of this material.

4. A supervisor distributed a bulletin of 30 mimeographed pages to several hundred teachers. The material had been copied from a recently published book, but no credit was given to the author.

Assisting Associates To Secure Promotions

Whenever possible the teacher should assist his fellow-workers to obtain merited promotion. Eleven of the codes stipulate that teach-

¹ Delaware, Louisiana, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota.

² Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota.

³ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.* Chapter II, Article II, Section I.

ers should help their associates to secure merited advancement in the profession. Below are some typical statements of this standard:

1. School officials should encourage and carefully nurture the professional growth of worthy teachers by recommending promotion either in their own school or in other schools. For school officials to fail to recommend a worthy teacher for another position because they do not desire to lose his services is unethical.—*National Education Association*.¹

2. It is ethical that any member of a school system shall use his influence or authority to secure for another member of that system a deserved promotion.—*Florida*.

3. The securing of harmony and sympathy is peculiarly promoted by fairness on both sides in the matter of promotions. It is by no means undesirable in a teacher to look forward to promotion and even by legitimate means to seek it. When opportunity offers, teachers will naturally and rightly choose service with a town or institution which is liberal and helpful in the matter of securing better positions.—*Rhode Island*.

Of those responding to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 96 percent stated that it is unethical "for a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services."¹

Among the violations of this standard reported are the following:

1. A superintendent wrote a recommendation for a supervisor who was doing excellent work and whose character was above reproach. He commented favorably upon her work, but added, "I do not think she is the type of person you want on your faculty." The supervisor remained in her old position.

2. A superintendent refused to recommend a good teacher because the latter had already signed his contract for the next year. This happened before school closed in June.

3. A superintendent neglected to answer inquiries from another school system concerning a teacher whom he had rated very highly.

Interfering in Another's Affairs

The teacher should refrain from interfering in any way, unless his official position warrants it, in the schoolroom affairs of an associate. Four codes specifically warn the teacher against intruding upon the professional affairs of his colleagues. The following statement is typical:

A teacher should not interfere between another teacher and a pupil in matters such as discipline or marking.—*National Education Association*.

Ninety-one percent of those returning the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics agreed that it is unethical "for one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems," and 82 percent reported that it is unethical "for school officials to change pupils' marks."²

Twenty-six violations of this standard were reported of which the following are typical:

1. A teacher quizzed children regularly as to what was happening in the room to which they had just been promoted.

2. One classroom teacher peremptorily told a new teacher what duties the latter should perform, although the principal had already explained these duties to the newcomer.

3. After school hours one high-school teacher assisted pupils from another teacher's class in algebra. This placed the regular algebra teacher in an unfavorable light before the pupils.

4. A teacher failed to promote a certain child. Other teachers in the building openly expressed the opinion that he should have been promoted.

5. A principal asked a teacher to raise a mark given to a pupil from an influential family, even though the pupil did not deserve the higher mark.

6. One teacher sympathized with pupils whom another teacher was trying to discipline.

Confidential Information

The teacher should hold inviolate confidential information concerning his associates. Nine codes state that it is unprofessional for a teacher to disclose confidential information regarding a fellow worker. The following are typical statements of this standard:

1. Confidential correspondence or conversations among teachers and school officers should not be violated either during the time of official relationship, or at any time. The very nature of the work of teaching and administering schools gives rise to many difficult and delicate situations which must be handled in a confidential manner.—*New Jersey*.

2. Those in authority are, in turn, duty bound to withhold from the public information and opinions as to the personal qualities or the personal attainments of teachers so long as they are under contract.—*Louisiana*.

3. Information given to a superintendent or other school official by a teachers' agency in confidence should be held in strict confidence, and under no circumstance be divulged to the candidate.—*Pennsylvania*.

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 6.

² See Appendix, Table 20, Items 25 and 27.

Of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 95 percent agreed that it is unethical "to violate confidential correspondence or conversation among teachers."¹

Thirty-five violations of this standard were reported. A few representative statements follow:

1. At a bridge party a teacher openly discussed matters relating to the recent discharge of a principal from the system.

2. Supervisors and principals gave out confidential information about applicants for teaching positions. Occasionally this occurred even after the teacher had been employed and had arrived on the job.

3. A principal had a personal friend on the board of education. At a board meeting a certain teacher was discussed and criticized. This discussion was passed by the board member to the principal, and by the latter to the teacher in question.

4. A superintendent's wife was teaching in his school system. The wife knew and reported to her friends everything that happened in school board meetings before these happenings were officially announced by the board.

5. A superintendent carried back to two teachers certain remarks made to him in confidence by the supervisor.

Criticism of Associates

The teacher should carefully avoid gossiping about or criticizing adversely his fellow-teachers. Criticism of associates is one of the most complex problems in the field of professional conduct. Honesty, frankness, and a sincere desire to help an individual or to improve a particular situation sometimes require definite criticism of an associate. On the other hand, adverse criticism of a teacher either in casual gossip or with malicious purpose tends to undermine that teacher's usefulness, encourages disloyalty, and thwarts genuine co-operation.

While four codes definitely stipulate that the progressive teacher should seek, expect, and welcome constructive criticism,² 25 specifically condemn the adverse criticism of one's associates. Four codes condemn the inciting or encouraging of conspiracies against superiors;³

17 condemn criticism of one's predecessor or of the teacher of a previous grade;⁴ and 11 specify that it is a professional duty to report *to the proper authorities* corrupt or dishonorable practices known to exist.⁵

The following statements illustrate the various phases of this standard:

1. Constructive criticism should be eagerly sought and gratefully accepted; and he who thus seeks and accepts it is a truly great teacher. . . . Unjust or indiscriminate criticism of co-workers should be avoided. No criticism should be made in the presence of children, fellow-teachers, or patrons. Criticism should never be destructive in its elements; nor should it ever include personal feelings. Refraining from criticism is perhaps the most difficult requirement of a professional attitude. It is the little strokes that fell great trees. Since criticism is the reverse of cooperation, its use is justifiable only as a constructive agent and under constructive conditions. Professional criticism is a two-edged sword to be drawn only in the cause of child welfare and only in formal accusation before those whose delegated right it is to try the case on its merits.—*Connecticut*.

2. Bad opinion of the members of the board of education, of a superintendent, or other superior school official no matter what the reason for such opinion, can never justify a teacher or other inferior official, in public expression of such opinions as long as such official relationship exists. . . . Adverse criticism of a predecessor or of a teacher employed in the same system, particularly of a teacher of a lower grade, is unethical, and should not be indulged in by those who are mindful and respectful of the dignity of teaching. Such criticism, if made, should be made only with the intent of serving some good end.—*Mississippi*.

3. It is unprofessional for a teacher to offer destructive criticism to the administration, to other teachers, or to patrons about a fellow teacher or about the management of the school in general. All criticism should be constructive in character and voiced to the proper authority and only for the purpose of remedying an existing evil. Therefore, it becomes equally unprofessional not to report to the administration matters that involve the best interests and well-being of the school.—*Missouri*.

4. As long as one remains a member of a school organization, loyalty to the interests of the school and community demands the entire suppression of irresponsible criticism of the institution, its policies, and its officers. Especially to be avoided and condemned are inciting and encouraging or tolerating antagonisms among pupils toward officers or policies and indulgence in outside criticism, ill-natured

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 24.

² Alabama, Connecticut, Delaware, and Wyoming.

³ New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Rhode Island.

⁴ Colorado, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Wyoming, and the National Education Association.

⁵ See p. 59-60.

gossip, and backbiting. Above all, no teacher worthy of the name will engage in organized conspiracy against his superiors. . . . While one cannot always approve of one's colleagues (or for that matter of superiors either), the only correct professional attitude toward them is genuine (not hypocritical) reticence, and absence from expressions of disapproval or ill-will.—*Rhode Island*.

From the large numbers of similar statements in the 25 codes which treat this problem specifically, it is clear that certain principles regarding criticism of associates have received general approval: (1) Teachers should welcome constructive criticism from their fellow-workers; (2) all criticisms should be definite and constructive; (3) all criticisms should be given directly and privately to the individual involved; and (4) in exceptional cases, when the circumstances are serious enough to warrant such action, the criticisms and the facts upon which they are based should be reported fearlessly to the proper authorities, with the expectation that the person criticized will be given an opportunity to explain his conduct.

In both medicine and law the criticism of professional associates has been recognized as an acute problem meriting definite proscription in the official standards. The following quotations are illustrative:

1. The physician, in his intercourse with a patient under the care of another physician, should observe the strictest caution and reserve; should give no disingenuous hints relative to the nature and treatment of the patient's disorder, nor should the course of conduct of the physician, directly or indirectly, tend to diminish the trust reposed in the attending physician. In embarrassing situations, or wherever there may seem to be a possibility of a misunderstanding with a colleague, the physician should always seek a personal interview with his fellow.¹

2. When a physician does succeed another physician in the charge of a case, he should not make comments on or insinuations regarding the practice of the one who preceded him. Such comments or insinuations tend to lower the esteem of the patient for the medical profession and so react against the critic.²

3. It is the duty of the lawyer to maintain towards the courts a respectful attitude, not for the sake of the temporary incumbent of the judicial office, but for the maintenance of its supreme im-

portance. Judges, not being wholly free to defend themselves, are peculiarly entitled to receive the support of the Bar against unjust criticism and clamor. Whenever there is proper ground for serious complaint of a judicial officer, it is the right and duty of the lawyer to submit his grievances to the proper authorities. In such cases, but not otherwise, such charges should be encouraged and the person making them should be protected.³

4. In the trial of a case it is indecent to allude to the personal history or the personal peculiarities and idiosyncrasies of counsel on the other side.⁴

5. He (the judge) should utilize his opportunities to criticise and correct unprofessional conduct of attorneys and counsellors, brought to his attention; and, if adverse comment is not a sufficient corrective, should send the matter at once to the proper investigating and disciplinary authorities.⁵

The unusual importance of this particular standard in the minds of teachers is shown by the fact that 504 or about 30 percent of the 1627 violations reported in this study were criticisms of professional associates. Table 15 presents a detailed frequency distribution of these 504 violations according to several specific types of situations. A few typical examples are given below:

1. A supervisor gave a certain teacher helpful suggestions as to how to improve her work. The teacher resented these suggestions because she

TABLE 15.—SPECIFIC TYPES OF VIOLATIONS CLASSIFIED AS CRITICISM OF ASSOCIATES

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. Teacher resented criticism.....	2
2. Teacher criticised fellow teacher:	
a. To other teachers.....	5
b. To or before pupils.....	39
c. To superiors.....	22
d. To outsiders.....	16
e. Indefinite cases.....	25
3. Teacher allowed pupils to criticise other teachers.....	13
4. Teacher criticized superiors.....	76
5. Teacher criticized predecessors.....	29
6. Principal criticized teachers.....	111
7. Principal criticized other principals....	8
8. Principal criticized superiors.....	27
9. Supervisor criticized teachers, principals, other supervisors, and superintendent.....	62
10. Superintendent criticized teachers, principals, other superintendents and athletic rivals.....	40
11. Organized conspiracy against superiors.	9
12. Miscellaneous cases of criticism.....	20
Total Number.....	504

¹ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article IV, Section 1.

² *Ibid.* Section 4.

³ American Bar Association. *Canons of Professional Ethics*, No. 1.

⁴ *Ibid.* No. 17.

⁵ American Bar Association. *Canons of Judicial Ethics*. No. 11.

thought her work was already satisfactory, and made a personal issue of the matter.

2. An art supervisor, upon finding a change of teachers in an upper grade room, said to the new teacher, "Now that you are here, we shall get some work done." The new teacher was well acquainted with her predecessor.

3. A teacher told a class of pupils that certain statements made by another teacher were false, giving the latter no opportunity to explain or defend her statements.

4. A teacher came to the principal's office for a conference, and during the discussion she related, without being asked to do so, some unpleasant information concerning the domestic affairs of another teacher in the school.

5. One day a teacher met the mother of a pupil who had been in the teacher's class the preceding year. The mother stated that her child's marks were lower than the year before, and that the child was not so happy as she had been under her former teacher. In reply the teacher openly discussed the methods employed by the child's present teacher. She said that she was surprised at the present teacher's attitude, that she would not think of using the latter's methods, and that the child in question was so sweet that no teacher should have any trouble with her.

6. The head of an English department, hearing an unusual noise as she was passing a classroom, entered and expressed her disapproval. When the department head had left the room, the teacher in charge remarked to the class that the department head was always "snooping around."

7. A fourth grade teacher, discussing the difficulties of one of her pupils with the parent, attributed much of the child's trouble to faulty teaching in fundamentals by another teacher during the preceding year.

8. A superintendent of schools called in members of his high-school teaching staff and pointed out not only their own weaknesses, but also the shortcomings of their principal. He also asked the teachers for additional criticism of the principal.

9. The principal of a certain school was lax in the supervision of teachers, leaving much of this work to the assistant principal. One teacher incited the others to take advantage of the situation by loafing on the job. She urged the others to pay no attention to the advice of the assistant principal, pointing out that the latter had no real authority.

Transaction of Business through Proper Channels

The teacher should transact all official business through the proper channels. Nine of the codes specify that the teacher should handle all business matters according to the established procedure of the system, and should avoid even the appearance of going over the

heads of his official superiors, except when exceptional circumstances require the latter action. The following statements are typical:

1. Both teachers and administrators should observe professional courtesy by transacting official business with the properly designated person next in rank.—*National Education Association.*

2. To avoid confusion or misunderstanding in giving directions or instructions to a subordinate other than an immediate subordinate, a superior officer should transmit such directions or instructions through all intermediary subordinates in due order, or with their knowledge.—*Rhode Island.*

3. Teachers should not make special requests to individual members of the school board. If an unusual or extraordinary condition should arise, a teacher may go direct to the board, but this should be done with full knowledge of the superintendent or principal. The practice of teachers going direct to the board with complaints, or for favors, should be condemned as opposed to a professional spirit and as counter to principles of successful organization and management.—*Mississippi.*

4. If a grievance arises, or if there is a question of salary, promotion, or assignment of work, it should be submitted to the immediate executives. Failing to obtain satisfaction, teachers may then appeal the case until the highest authority is reached.—*New Jersey.*

5. A teachers' association should confer with the superintendent, by committee, on all questions involving the relation of teachers and superintendents, before submitting them to the school board or the public.—*South Dakota.*

Although school organizations differ somewhat in different communities, the teacher will usually do well to transact her school business with the following general principles in mind:

1. The board of education is elected or appointed as the legal representative of the people to see that the schools are properly administered. Ordinarily it should not attempt to deal directly with subordinate members of the school system, but should delegate this function to a chief administrative officer (superintendent) appointed by it.¹

2. The superintendent is usually held responsible by the board for maintaining efficient and harmonious relations within the system, and for this reason his subordinates should not, except in very unusual circumstances, attempt to deal with the school board except through the superintendent himself.

3. Teachers should transact all official business through their immediate superiors

¹ Olsen, Hans C. *The Work of Boards of Education.* Contributions to Education, No. 213. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

except when special conditions warrant a different procedure. Persons of higher rank than teachers should administer their policies through those who are next below them in rank. Where lines of responsibility between individuals are indefinite or entirely lacking, ordinary courtesy and a cooperative attitude are the best guides to proper conduct.

Of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics, 71 percent stated that it is unethical for a teacher "to go over the head of one's superiors" in transacting the business of the schools.¹

Seventy-five violations of this standard were reported. The examples which follow are typical:

1. A teacher went to the superintendent with her schoolroom troubles without saying a word to her principal.

2. A teacher in a city system wished to be transferred from one building to another. Instead of consulting the principal of her building, she took the matter up with the supervisor of instruction.

3. A teacher tried to secure a position in a certain school system by direct appeal to members of the school board, in spite of the known opposition of the superintendent.

4. A coach annually created a community controversy over his salary. He went directly to the board of education over the superintendent to negotiate his contract.

5. A principal always went directly to members of the school board in regard to matters of school

organization, without first consulting her superintendent.

6. A supervisor visited the teachers of a certain building without informing the principal that she was in the building.

Organizing Data for Successor

The teacher leaving a position should organize and leave for his successor such records and other information as will be needed in beginning the next year's work. Five codes specify that no teacher should retire from a position without leaving adequate records for the use of his successor. The following statements illustrate this standard:

1. On leaving a position a teacher should take every precaution not to injure in any way the school. Care should also be exercised to leave in writing all information that would be of service to his successor.—*Georgia.*

2. Teachers retiring from positions should leave on file such records and reports for the guidance of successors as they themselves would like to receive on entering upon the duties of similar positions.—*New Jersey.*

The following violations of this standard were reported:

1. A teacher left at the end of the school year without filing certain records which were required of all teachers.

2. A superintendent who had been discharged destroyed valuable records in the office in order to embarrass his successor.

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 22.

CHAPTER VII

Standards of Conduct in Relation to the Profession

Members of every profession have certain responsibilities which they carry by virtue of their membership in that particular social group. This chapter presents some of the standards of conduct suggested by the codes which teachers are under obligation to observe because they are members of the profession.

The extent to which these standards are specifically mentioned in the codes analyzed is shown in Table 16. The number of violations reported in connection with each standard is shown in Table 17.

Pride in the Profession

The teacher should manifest genuine pride in the teaching profession. Fourteen of the codes stipulate that the teacher should have a genuine personal pride in the profession. Apologizing for it, speaking disparagingly of it, failing to prepare adequately for it, and using it merely as a stepping stone to other vocations are definitely proscribed. The following statements are typical:

1. All members of the profession should feel convinced that the work of the educator is coordinate in rank and dignity with every other human calling and branch of human service. . . . They should have enthusiasm for it and never speak disparagingly of it, in or out of the system.—*Florida*.
2. All teachers should feel deeply the worth and dignity of their calling and not regard it as merely a stepping stone to other vocations.—*Ohio*.
3. A teacher should prepare for his work with the intention of remaining in the vocation for a long enough period to justify thorough preparation, and to insure that sincere, painstaking, and enthusiastic type of work which characterizes a real profession.—*Louisiana*.
4. If one has no interest in teaching except to make money to do something else, it would be better for him to seek some other employment. Certainly while he is teaching he should not be spending his time in preparation for some other calling. His work should receive his undivided attention.—*South Carolina*.

Forty-four percent of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education

Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to criticize the profession"; 23 percent reported that it is ethical and 30 percent qualified their replies.¹ Forty-three percent reported that it is not ethical "to use the profession as a stepping-stone to other professions or vocations"; 24 percent replied that this is ethical and 30 percent qualified their replies.²

Of the five violations of this standard reported these are representative:

1. Miss X openly stated that she did not like her work and that she was teaching only for the salary.
2. A teacher was ashamed of her profession when speaking to her friends.
3. A teacher did not want to be recognized as a teacher when outside of the school.

Standards of Entrance

The teacher should support, and assist in raising, the standards of entrance to the profession. Seventeen codes specify that teachers should uphold, and cooperate in improving the requirements for admission to the profession. The following statements are typical:

1. The teacher should uphold professional standards by making the best initial preparation possible for his own work and by assisting to secure such legislation and such local regulations as will render it impossible for a community to place the children under the tuition of unqualified teachers.—*Colorado*.
2. It is incumbent upon all classroom teachers to secure full standard professional training, and upon all school supervisors and administrators to pursue advanced specialized courses to fit themselves better for their positions.—*Louisiana*.
3. Nor will I disgrace it (the teaching profession) by seeking a position for which I am not scholastically and professionally prepared.—*Utah*.
4. Teachers should not try to circumvent the certification . . . provisions in our state laws.—*South Dakota*.
5. Teachers should encourage only those of high quality to become recruits to the profession and should support every movement toward the elevation of its standards and efficiency.—*Ohio*.

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 33.

² *Ibid.*, Item 32.

TABLE 16.—CODES OF ETHICS WHICH SPECIFY VARIOUS STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RELATION TO THE PROFESSION

Standards	N. E. A.	Alabama	Colorado	Connecticut	Delaware	Florida	Georgia	Idaho	Iowa	Kansas	Kentucky	Louisiana	Maine	Massachusetts	Michigan	Mississippi	Missouri	New Hampshire	New Jersey	New York	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Oregon	Pennsylvania	Rhode Island	South Carolina	South Dakota	Texas	Utah	Virginia	Washington	Wyoming	Total Number
1. To manifest a personal pride in the teaching profession.....	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	14
2. To support and assist in raising the standards of entrance to the profession.....	X	..	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	..	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	17
3. To broaden his educational equipment for teaching after entering the profession.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	30
4. To maintain an open mind towards all forms of professional progress.....	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	9
5. To affiliate actively with professional associations.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	X	26
6. To work for material conditions necessary for high degree of professional service.....	X	X	X	X	..	X	..	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	X	18
7. To report to the proper authorities corrupt and dishonorable practices known to exist.....	X	X	X	X	..	X	X	X	X	11

TABLE 17.—REPORTED VIOLATIONS
OF STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN RE-
LATION TO THE PROFESSION

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. Lack of pride in the profession.....	5
2. Failure to support and assist in raising standards of entrance.....	1
3. Failure to be a progressive student of education.....	6
4. Failure to affiliate actively with pro- fessional organizations.....	8
5. Failure to work for material conditions necessary for a high degree of profes- sional service.....	3
Total Number.....	23

The corresponding statements for physicians and lawyers are as follows:

The obligation assumed on entering the profession requires the physician . . . to exalt its standards and to extend its sphere of usefulness . . . It is unprofessional for a physician to assist unqualified persons to evade legal restrictions governing the practice of medicine . . . Every physician should aid in safeguarding the profession against the admission to its ranks of those who are unfit or unqualified because deficient in either moral character or education.¹

The lawyer should aid in guarding the Bar against the admission to the profession of candidates unfit or unqualified because deficient in either moral character or education. He should strive at all times to uphold the honor and to maintain the dignity of the profession and to improve not only the law but the administration of justice.²

Seventy-eight percent of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to fail to encourage the fit to enter and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession."³

The only violation of this standard reported was:

A teacher accepted a position to teach subjects which she was unprepared to teach.

Growth in Service

The teacher should be a progressive student of education. Thirty of the codes stipulate that the teacher should increase his educational

equipment after entering the service, and nine specify that he should maintain an open mind toward all forms of professional progress. The various means suggested for accomplishing these standards are summer school and extension courses, reading professional magazines and books, travel, visiting classes, attending institutes and teachers' meetings and serving on committees. The following statements are typical:

1. The teacher should maintain his efficiency and teaching skill by study and by contact with local, state, and national associations.—*National Education Association.*

2. All teachers should be subscribers to at least one professional journal of recognized worth, should read a few of the most important books on education, including those appearing each year, should visit classes of other teachers, should attend teachers' meetings as often as is practicable and should enroll in summer or extension courses in normal schools, colleges or universities.—*New Jersey.*

3. Every member of the profession should be a progressive student of education. To this end, he should be a thoughtful reader of educational literature, should attend and participate in educational meetings, should engage in such experimentation and collection of data as will test the value of educational theories and aid in the establishment of a scientific basis for educational practice, and should be willing to give to his fellow members the benefit of his professional knowledge and experience.—*Pennsylvania.*

4. In the interest of professional growth, he (the teacher) should maintain a friendly attitude toward change.—*North Carolina.*

The Michigan code suggests that the board of education should stimulate and encourage the professional growth of teachers while in service by granting them permission to attend educational meetings without loss of pay, allowing visiting days, and encouraging them to attend summer school, to travel, and in other ways to improve their knowledge and skill in teaching.

Physicians are likewise advised to avoid stagnation:

A physician should not base his practice on an exclusive dogma or sectarian system, for "sects are implacable despots; to accept their thralldom is to take away all liberty from one's action and thought."⁴

¹ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Sections 1, 6 and 7.

² American Bar Association. *Canons of Professional Ethics*, No. 29.

³ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 31.

⁴ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Section 1.

Eighty-eight percent of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to fail to be a progressive student of education."¹

Of the six violations of this standard reported, the following are typical:

1. An older teacher consistently belittled extension work and other means of growth before enthusiastic beginning teachers.

2. A teacher showed a general let-down as soon as she was safely established under the state tenure law.

3. A teacher habitually assumed an adverse attitude toward any suggested new activity or procedure.

Affiliation with Professional Associations

The teacher should cooperate actively with local, state, and national professional organizations. Twenty-six of the codes stipulate that the teacher should affiliate with and participate actively in the programs of professional organizations. Three specify no definite organizations;² two specify membership in the state association;³ one specifies membership in state and local associations;⁴ two specify membership in the state and local associations and add, "and the national, if possible";⁵ while two specify the state and national associations;⁶ and 16 specify the local, state, and national associations.⁷ The following statements are typical:

1. The teacher should cooperate actively with local, state and national associations, should know their plans and help by active membership in making better plans and contribute purposefully to their fulfillment.—*Alabama*.

2. It is the ethical duty of the educator to become an active member of at least the state and local education associations.—*Florida*.

3. It is unethical to accept benefits while withholding support from organizations which secure

and maintain them. Consequently a teacher should give active support to the local association, to the State Federation and to the National Education Association.—*Massachusetts*.

4. Every teacher should be a member of the South Dakota Education Association and, if possible, the National Education Association.—*South Dakota*.

The *Principles of Medical Ethics* contain the following specifications:

In order that the dignity and honor of the medical profession may be upheld, its standards exalted, its sphere of usefulness extended, and the advancement of medical science promoted, a physician should associate himself with medical societies and contribute his time, energy, and means in order that these societies may represent the ideals of the profession.⁸

Seven violations of this standard were reported of which the following are typical:

1. A teacher refused to join the state education association because he was from outside the state and expected to remain for only one year.

2. A teacher refused to join local, state, and national organizations of the profession.

Improving Economic and Social Conditions

The teacher should work actively for such economic and social conditions as will permit the profession to render the best possible service. Eighteen of the codes mention the responsibility of the teacher to work for the conditions which are necessary to secure a high type of professional service. The specific conditions stipulated vary in the different states. Two codes advise teachers to refrain from accepting a position in communities "where conditions are such that no ambitious or self-respecting teacher could hope to succeed";⁹ three specify tenure of position;¹⁰ one mentions "provision for teachers who have given many years of faithful service to the state";¹¹ three specify

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 30.

² Delaware, Michigan, and New Hampshire.

³ Mississippi and Oregon.

⁴ Florida.

⁵ South Carolina and South Dakota.

⁶ Missouri and Oklahoma.

⁷ National Education Association, Alabama, Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Ohio, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

⁸ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Section 2.

⁹ Mississippi and New Jersey.

¹⁰ Florida, Idaho, and Kansas.

¹¹ Florida.

"equal salaries for equal service to all teachers of equivalent training, experience, and success";¹ and 14 stipulate that teachers should demand a "just and worthy compensation in keeping with training, experience, and success."² The following statements are typical:

1. Should a condition so unethical ever exist in a community, or within a board of education, that teachers are forced out of their positions and such situations created that no self-respecting person can subscribe to the conditions maintained, such position should be left absolutely open, and any candidacy for the position on the part of those thoroughly advised of the conditions should be regarded as unprofessional.—*New Jersey*.

2. Teacher practice looks toward securing for teachers, tenure of position during efficiency, this being the condition under which a teacher can best plan for a life of development and service.—*Florida*.

3. Teachers should expect and work collectively for salaries sufficient to enable them to live in comfort and security, improve themselves by travel, study, and meeting, and provide for the year of retirement.—*Ohio*.

4. Every member of this profession and the professional organizations should demand for its members a just and worthy compensation in keeping with the training, experience, and success of the individual members. For equal training, experience, and ability there should be equal remuneration to all teachers, whether they teach in elementary grade, junior or senior high schools. While it is unprofessional for the teacher to measure his work in terms of financial rewards, it is unprofessional to teach for a wage that is insufficient to cover living expenses for twelve months.—*Oklahoma*.

The corresponding statements for physicians and lawyers are as follows:

It is unprofessional for a physician to dispose of his services under conditions that make it impossible to render adequate service to his patient or which interfere with reasonable competition among physicians of a community. To do this is detrimental to the public and to the individual physician, and lowers the dignity of the profession.³

In fixing fees, lawyers should avoid charges which overestimate their advice and services, as well as those which undervalue them.⁴

Forty-five percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it

is unethical "to accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly."⁵ Twenty-four percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 30 percent qualified their replies. Fifty-one percent reported that it is unethical for teachers "to enter a combination to force increases in salaries." Sixteen percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 31 percent qualified their replies.⁶ Three violations of this standard were reported of which the following is representative:

A superintendent always managed to get his salary raised but when the teachers asked for an increase he said there was no money.

Reporting Corrupt and Dishonorable Practices

The teacher should report to the proper authorities corrupt or dishonorable practices known to exist in the profession. Eleven of the codes stipulate that the teacher should report to the proper authorities any matters which involve the best interests of the school. The following statements are typical:⁷

1. Teachers should fearlessly expose corrupt or dishonest conduct in the profession, and there should be no hesitancy on the part of teachers in exercising the utmost diligence to disqualify and debar the criminal teacher whose conduct at any time becomes a reproach to the profession.—*Mississippi*.

2. When the rights of the children are being denied, and when the schools are being subordinated to personal and partisan politics, and whenever it is known that the schools are being exploited for personal gain, it becomes the duty of the teachers, principal, or superintendent, jointly or individually, to appraise the public of the facts, and through legitimate channels to seek to remedy the evils.—*New Jersey*.

For the legal and medical professions the duty of reporting corrupt and dishonest practices is specified in the following statements:

1. Lawyers should expose without fear or favor before the proper tribunals corrupt or dishonest conduct in the profession, and should accept with-

¹ Florida, Missouri, and Oklahoma.

² National Education Association, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, and Texas.

³ American Medical Association, *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article 6, Section 2.

⁴ American Bar Association, *Canons of Professional Ethics*, No. 12.

⁵ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 3.

⁶ *Ibid.*, item 12.

⁷ Additional statements will be found under the section on *Criticism of Associates*, p. 51.

out hesitation employment against a member of the Bar who has wronged his client. The counsel upon the trial of a cause in which perjury has been committed owe it to the profession and to the public to bring the matter to the knowledge of the prosecuting authorities.¹

2. Physicians should expose without fear or favor, before the proper medical or legal tribunals, corrupt or dishonest conduct of members of the profession.²

3. Physicians should warn the public against the devices practiced and false pretensions made by charlatans which may cause injury to health and loss of life.³

Apparently this standard has not yet received general approval among the members of the teaching profession, as only 50 percent of those who replied to the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is ethical "to censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency within the profession," while 24 percent reported that this is unethical and an equal number qualified their replies.⁴

¹ American Bar Association. *Canons of Professional Ethics*, No. 29.

² American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Section 7.

³ *Ibid*, Chapter III, Section 3.

⁴ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 29.

CHAPTER VIII

Standards of Conduct in Securing and Terminating Employment

This chapter presents the standard procedures which the codes suggest for teachers in securing positions and in terminating employment. Table 18 shows the extent to which each standard is specifically mentioned in the codes analyzed. Table 19 indicates the number of violations reported in connection with these procedures.

Applying for a Position

Unless the rules of the system prescribe otherwise the teacher should apply for a position to or through the superintendent. All of the codes imply and most of them state specifically that with certain exceptions it is an approved procedure for teachers to seek appointment and promotion by filing applications and credentials either with the superintendent direct or through a teachers' agency. Ten of the codes specify that unless the rules of the system prescribe otherwise, applications should be made to or through the superintendent. Four suggest that applications may with propriety be filed through a teachers' agency,¹ and one stipulates that "no teacher should accept the aid of an agent of any book or supply house in obtaining a teaching position."²

The following statements are representative:

1. Unless the rules of the school otherwise prescribe, he (the teacher) should apply for a teaching position to the chief executive.—*National Education Association.*
2. Application for positions should be made to boards (of education) through the superintendent of schools as executive officer, and not to individual members of the board of education.—*Colorado.*
3. It is proper for the candidate to make his qualifications known to the school authorities either directly or through a teachers' agency.—*Massachusetts.*

Sixty-five percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee reported that it is un-

ethical "for a teacher to apply for a position directly to the board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive."³

The teacher should apply only for a position known to be vacant. Twenty of the codes recognize the danger of injury to the profession which arises from teachers broadcasting general applications for positions. These twenty codes stipulate that a teacher should apply only for a position which is known to be vacant. Five⁴ of these twenty codes, however, are unable to get completely away from approving the traditional system of distributing applications indiscriminately, and they qualify the standard by stating that it should not be construed to mean that teachers should not file general applications on blanks furnished for that purpose or direct letters of inquiry to educational authorities concerning probable vacancies. It is a significant fact that earlier editions of three⁵ of the codes specifically discouraged applying for several positions simultaneously.⁶

Until certification requirements are raised to include the recommendation of an accredited professional school, and until the professional schools recognize more fully their responsibility for limiting their output somewhat in keeping with the demand, it is probable that the qualified proscription of general applications will remain in vogue. However, it seems inevitable that eventually the custom of broadcasting applications will fall into disrepute as completely as have "ambulance chasing" and "display advertising" in the fields of law and medicine. Advisers to graduating classes in professional schools, although aware of the futility of general applications, frequently hesitate to prescribe their use for fear that some of their proteges may fail to secure positions. No one familiar with the facts doubts the futility of general applications, and their detrimental effect upon the development of the profession is equally obvious.

¹ Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota.

² Massachusetts.

³ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 2.

⁴ Colorado, Georgia, Massachusetts, Mississippi, and New Jersey.

⁵ Alabama, Michigan, and Oklahoma.

⁶ National Education Association, Committee on Ethics of the Profession. Report: *The Ethics of the Teaching Profession.* (Sarah T. Muir, Chairman.) July, 1926. p. 24.

TABLE 18.—CODES OF ETHICS WHICH SPECIFY VARIOUS STANDARDS OF CONDUCT
IN SECURING AND TERMINATING EMPLOYMENT

Standards	N. E. A.	Alabama	Colorado	Connecticut	Delaware	Florida	Georgia	Idaho	Iowa	Kansas	Kentucky	Louisiana	Maine	Massachusetts	Michigan	Mississippi	Missouri	New Hampshire	New Jersey	New York	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Oregon	Pennsylvania	Rhode Island	South Carolina	South Dakota	Texas	Utah	Virginia	Washington	Wyoming	Total Number	
1. To apply for a position only to or through the superintendent.....	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	10
2. To apply only for a position which is known to be vacant.....	X	...	X	...	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	20
3. To withdraw all other applications after a position has been accepted.....	X	X	X	X	X	8
4. To seek appointment and promotion only on the basis of merit.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	24
5. To refrain from any scheme of self-advertising.....	X	X	X	X	X	6
6. To refrain from using open recommendations.....	X	4
7. To refrain from underbidding a rival in order to secure a position.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	13
8. To refrain from seeking an offer elsewhere for the sole purpose of using it as a means to obtain an increase of salary in his present position.....	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	7
9. To execute fully any contract entered into.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	29
10. To give due notice regarding termination of employment.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	...	X	...	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	17

TABLE 19.—REPORTED VIOLATIONS OF STANDARDS OF CONDUCT IN SECURING AND TERMINATING EMPLOYMENT

Nature of Violations	Frequency of Mention
1. Applying for positions not vacant.....	52
2. Positions sought, assigned and refused on bases other than merit.....	27
3. Open and inaccurate letters of recommendation.....	6
4. Underbidding for a position.....	14
5. Seeking an offer elsewhere to obtain increase of salary in present position.....	5
6. Violations of contracts.....	60
7. Negotiating with teachers without giving notice to present employers.....	21
8. Refusing to release teachers from contracts.....	4
9. Failure to give due notice regarding termination of employment.....	16
Total Number.....	205

The following statements of this standard are representative:

1. The teacher should not apply for a specific position unless a vacancy exists.—*National Education Association.*
2. Before making application for a position, he (the teacher) should definitely ascertain that there is a vacancy. This should not be construed to mean that teachers should not file general applications on blanks furnished them.—*Colorado.*
3. Teachers should not become applicants for a position that is not vacant or about to become vacant. If their application is sought by a board or board member before there is a vacancy the board should be informed that a vacancy must be declared before an application or teacher's name can be used. This rule is not to be construed to forbid a teacher from making a proper inquiry as to possible vacancies.—*Georgia.*
4. A teacher should take no steps towards obtaining a specific position until he knows the position is vacant or about to become vacant. A superintendency or other supervisory headship of a school system should be considered as "about to become vacant" only when the present incumbent shall have notified the school board that he does not desire to be reelected, or the school board, sitting in committee of the whole, or by some equivalent process, shall have determined that the present incumbent will not be reelected. Any other kind of position shall be considered as "about to become vacant" only when the present incumbent shall have notified the proper supervisory officer that he does not desire to be continued, or the superintendent or some other authorized supervisory officer shall have notified the present incumbent that he intends to recommend the discontinuance of his employment.—*Pennsylvania.*

Sixty-five percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to apply for a position not known to be vacant." Ten percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 23 percent qualified their replies.¹

Fifty-two cases of applying for positions not vacant were reported. The following are typical illustrations:

1. A teacher made application for a position before the position was declared vacant.
2. High-school principal asked a neighboring superintendent if he was going to stay next year. The superintendent said "Yes." The high-school principal applied to board regardless of the information.
3. The principal of high school applied for the superintendent's position while school was running smoothly and both were on the job.
4. A man applied for a superintendency when the status of the superintendent was in doubt. He fought so vigorously for the place that he was elected and displaced the former man.
5. A superintendent applied in a neighboring town on a rumor that the superintendent was not coming back. He failed to ascertain from the superintendent whether the rumor was true or not.

Withdrawing Applications

Upon accepting a position the teacher should withdraw all outstanding applications. Eight of the codes stipulate that after accepting a position a teacher should notify all other persons with whom applications have been filed. The following statements are typical:

1. When accepting a position a teacher should inform any other place where an application has been filed that his services are not available.—*Oklahoma.*
2. It is the duty of the teacher to withdraw immediately all applications when a contract has been signed, and to notify immediately all persons who may be actually assisting in securing a position.—*Oregon.*

Eighty-two percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted."²

¹ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 1.
² See Appendix, Table 20, Item 4.

Merit the Sole Basis for Appointment or Promotion

The teacher should seek appointment and promotion only on the basis of professional merit. Twenty-four of the codes stipulate that merit, the possession of proper professional fitness, should be the only basis on which teachers should seek and on which authorities should make appointments and promotions. The use of family, political, religious, or fraternal influences, length of service, and fawning on members of the board of education are definitely condemned. The following statements are typical:

1. The duty of superintendents is to select teachers only on the basis of fitness for the work to be done without fear or favor.—*Colorado*.

2. Teachers should neither seek nor expect promotion except on the basis of professional merit. Outside solicitation regardless of established efficiency should not be considered in securing positions; neither should mere length of service.—*Connecticut*.

3. Obtaining and securing positions by fawning upon members of board of education or others in authority by courting their personal favor, or by doubtful relations with them will be regarded as undignified and unethical by respectable and self-respecting teachers. The election of teachers to office should be based solely upon merit. No other should be so quick or so zealous to insist upon elections under such a system as teachers themselves.—*Mississippi*.

The regulations regarding teachers in Fresno, California, stipulated in 1925 that the use of any personal or political influence or the urging of any factor other than professional fitness, would be regarded as unprofessional conduct which would warrant the superintendent in refusing to further the applicant for a teaching position.¹

Twenty-seven violations of this standard were reported. The following are typical illustrations:

1. A superintendent refused to consider the contract of a teacher because of religious belief.

2. A teacher played politics by catering to the interests of a certain few children of influential

parents, and then when she had failed as a teacher she used these friends to try to compel the superintendent and Board of Education to reelect her.

3. A superintendent retained on his force of teachers a woman whom he knew to be inefficient, solely because of a political connection which might have affected him.

4. A superintendent dismissed a teacher to give a relative a position.

5. A candidate for the principalship of a high school invoked the aid of the Kiwanis Club and Board of Trade, bringing pressure to bear upon the superintendent of schools in order to secure appointment.

6. One of the directors in a certain district insisted that a certain teacher should not be reelected so that his daughter, who had just graduated from normal school, could be given a position.

Nepotism

Is it good form for a teacher to seek or accept employment from a board of education of which a near relative is a member? The Michigan code stipulates that a board member should avoid seeking to secure a position as teacher for a member of his family. Allen reports that statutes quite generally invalidate contracts in which a board member holds or may hold a pecuniary interest, and that thus a contract with a near relative of a board member is held invalid.² A recent writer protests vigorously against the custom on the grounds that the complications and embarrassments resulting from it often lead to inefficiency. He quotes the opinion of the attorney-general of the State of Washington to the effect that "while the employment of relatives by school directors is not expressly forbidden by statute when the directors have no interest in such employment, nevertheless the practice is contrary to the spirit of the law and should be limited to cases of necessity."³ However, only 22 percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is the superintendent of schools." Forty-four percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 33 percent qualified their replies.⁴

¹ Anderson, Earl William. *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 246. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 78.

² Allen, Ira M. *Op. cit.* p. 51.

³ Thomas, Maurice J., "School Boards and Teacher Hire," *Washington Education Journal* 9: 201; March, 1930.

⁴ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 5.

Self-advertising

The teacher should not lend himself to any scheme of self-advertising. Six codes condemn self-advertising. The following statements are typical:

1. The teacher should not exploit his school or himself by personally inspired press notices or advertisements.—*National Education Association.*
2. Any endeavor to establish a reputation or to obtain a position by innuendo, exploitations, complimentary press notices or advertisements is undignified and unprofessional.—*Mississippi.*

Ninety-three percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to endeavor to secure or maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising."¹

Advertising is proscribed in the standards for physicians and lawyers in almost identical terms. The following statement is representative:

Solicitation of patients by physicians as individuals, or collectively in groups by whatsoever name these be called, or by institutions or organizations, whether by circulars or advertisements, or by personal communications, is unprofessional. This does not prohibit ethical institutions from a legitimate advertisement of location, physical surroundings, and special class—if any—of patients accommodated. It is equally unprofessional to procure patients by indirection through solicitors or agents of any kind, or by indirect advertisement, or by furnishing or inspiring newspaper or magazine comments concerning cases in which the physician has been or is concerned. All other like self-laudations defy the traditions and lower the tone of any profession and so are intolerable. The most worthy and effective advertisement possible, even for a young physician, and especially with his brother physicians, is the establishment of a well-merited reputation for professional ability and fidelity. This cannot be forced, but must be the outcome of character and conduct. The publication or circulation of ordinary simple business cards, being a matter of personal taste or local custom, and sometimes of convenience, is not *per se* improper. As implied, it is unprofessional to disregard local customs and offend recognized ideals in publishing or circulating such cards. It is unprofessional to promise radical cures; to boast of cures and secret methods of treatment or remedies;

to exhibit certificates of skill or of success in the treatment of diseases; or to employ any methods to gain the attention of the public for the purpose of obtaining patients.²

Recommendations

The teacher should neither ask for nor give general testimonials, and personal letters of recommendation should be frank and honest. Four of the codes proscribe the use of open recommendations while seven³ stipulate that recommendations given should be frank, candid, and without reservations. The following statements are typical:

1. It is the duty of the teacher to refuse to give or accept open recommendations.—*Oregon.*
2. Recognizing the small value of open recommendations teachers will not ask for them but will place their faith in the confidential statements of those qualified to speak.—*Wyoming.*
3. Testimonials regarding a teacher should be frank, candid, and confidential.—*National Education Association.*
4. It is most unprofessional and unethical for a school superintendent or principal to issue a testimonial to a teacher ascribing qualifications which she does not possess. In giving verbal or written estimates of a teacher's qualifications for a position, schoolmen should be absolutely frank with one another and act without any mental reservations whatsoever.—*Kentucky.*

Forty-two percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to issue or use a 'to-whom-it-may-concern' testimonial." Thirty-six percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 18 percent qualified their replies.⁴ Seventy-five percent reported that it is unethical "to fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations."⁵

Six violations of these standards were reported. The following are typical:

1. A superintendent gave to a teacher open letters of recommendation that praised her, but in confidential reports stated that the teacher was undesirable.
2. A superintendent recommended highly to another superintendent a teacher whom he had discharged for inefficiency.

¹ *Ibid.*, Item 15.

² American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Section 4.

³ National Education Association, Colorado, Delaware, Kentucky, Mississippi, South Dakota, Wyoming.

⁴ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 8.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Item 9.

Underbidding

The teacher should not underbid a rival candidate for a position. Thirteen of the codes stipulate that it is unprofessional for a teacher to underbid a rival or a salary schedule. The following statements are typical:

1. He (a teacher) should not knowingly underbid a rival in order to secure a position; neither should he knowingly underbid a salary schedule.—*National Education Association.*
2. It is unprofessional for a teacher to underbid another teacher for a position.—*Georgia.*
3. To secure a position by underbidding where a certain salary schedule prevails and can be maintained, constitutes disloyalty to the profession.—*Washington.*

Eighty-six percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that "it is unethical to bid or underbid for a position."¹

Fourteen violations of this standard were reported. The following are typical:

1. A teacher in the system offered to take the principalship in the senior high school for \$400 less salary than the principal was then receiving.
2. A superintendent made application for a position and knowingly offered to work for less than another candidate.

Seeking an Offer Elsewhere

The teacher should not seek an offer elsewhere for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in his present position. Seven of the codes stipulate that the teacher should not seek an offer elsewhere for the sole purpose of using it as a means for securing an increase in salary in his present position. The following statement is representative:

The teacher should not apply for another position for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in his present position. Correspondingly school officials should not pursue a policy of refusing to give deserved salary increases to their employees until offers from other school systems have forced them to do so.—*National Education Association.*

Fifty-six percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position." Twenty-eight percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 15 percent qualified their replies.²

Five violations of this standard were reported of which the following is typical:

A teacher applied for a new position when she was already employed and then used the new offer as a lever to obtain a higher salary.

Fulfilling Contracts

The teacher should fulfill any agreement which he makes. Twenty-nine of the codes stipulate that the teacher should execute fully any contract entered into. Six suggest that before signing the contract the teacher should make sure that it is fair and just;³ seven mention the reciprocal responsibility of superintendents and boards of education for fulfilling contracts;⁴ eight warn superintendents against offering a position to any teacher known to be under contract without first determining the willingness of employer to grant a release;⁵ and twelve recognize the possibility of emergencies which may warrant requests for release but even in these cases, while employers are advised to be generous and superintendents are urged to aid successful teachers to secure deserved promotion, teachers are admonished to fulfill their agreements.⁶ The following statements are typical:

1. A contract once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. In cases of emergency, the thoughtful consideration which business sanction demands should be given by both parties to the contract.—*National Education Association.*

2. A teacher should thoroughly understand a contract before signing it. A contract just to the profession should be demanded. The signing of a contract demands more than a casual perusal before so doing. Each clause should be carefully studied and local conditions known before the position is accepted. Once the contract is signed, it should be

¹ *Ibid.*, Item 10.

² See Appendix, Table 20, Item 11.

³ Connecticut, Michigan, New Hampshire, Ohio, Oklahoma, Texas.

⁴ National Education Association, Alabama, Louisiana, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Wyoming.

⁵ Kentucky, Michigan, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Washington, Wyoming.

⁶ National Education Association, Connecticut, Georgia, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Wyoming.

strictly adhered to until mutually dissolved. A contract is a business document and should receive the same consideration and attention that all like matters of business demand. In case of emergency the same thoughtful consideration should be given to its termination as business etiquette and sanction demand, with the further thought, that the good of the child is paramount. However, a liberal attitude toward release should be taken by the superintendent when it is possible to do so. Conditions of release should be stated in the contract.—*Connecticut*.

3. The practice of terminating contracts with teachers because of shortage of funds, epidemics, or other causes . . . should be tolerated no longer. It should be as obligatory on a municipality to fulfill a contract with a teacher as a contract with any other official of the municipality.—*Louisiana*.

4. There is probably no action which brings the profession into greater disrepute with men of business, or with the public generally, than for teachers to disregard the obligation of contracts. The practice cannot be too severely condemned by the profession itself.—*New Jersey*.

5. A superintendent or other school officer will not offer a position to a teacher known to be under contract without first determining the willingness of the employers to grant a release. Neither will a superintendent or other school officer stand in the way of a worthy promotion to a successful teacher within his own or another school system.—*Wyoming*.

Sixty-eight percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to break a contract to accept another position." Four percent replied that this is ethical and 26 percent qualified their replies.¹ Seventy-two percent reported that it is unethical "for a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him before he has conferred with her present officials." Fourteen percent reported that this procedure is ethical and 12 percent qualified their replies.²

Eighty-five violations of these standards were reported. The following are typical cases:

1. A teacher signed a contract knowing that she would not return if she could find a better job. She sent out applications and was successful in securing another appointment. Immediately she resigned her former position.
2. A teacher accepted a position, but wired his resignation six days before school opened, because he was offered a job which paid \$200 more.

3. A superintendent resigned ten days before the schools were to open for the sole purpose of accepting a position with a book company.
4. Without conferring with the present employers, a superintendent wrote teachers asking them if they would like to teach for him.
5. A supervisor from a neighboring town came into a school and visited several classes after which he made offers of positions to the teachers. He even failed to ask the principal or the superintendent for permission to interview the teachers.
6. Although a teacher was offered a much better position the superintendent refused to grant her a release from her contract because of the inconvenience involved in securing a successor.

Notification Regarding Termination of Employment

Due notice should be given by school officials and teachers whenever a change of position is to be made. Coupled closely with the principle of fulfillment of contracts is that of due notification of intention to terminate employment. This also involves a reciprocal obligation between teacher and employer. Seventeen codes mention this duty. The following statements are typical:

1. It is the duty of the teacher . . . to inform the administration as soon as possible of definite decision to resign.—*Alabama*.
2. In fairness to teachers all reappointments should be made at least six weeks before the close of school.—*Kentucky*.
3. Teachers who fail to meet the needs of the school or of the community are entitled to a frank statement by the chief executive or other authorized representative of the Board of Education, of the cause, and should never be subjected to the humiliation of non-election without due notice. This information should also come in time so that they may seek positions elsewhere.—*New Jersey*.
4. If at any time before the expiration of a contract either party should decide that a new contract should not be entered into, the party so decided should notify the other party at such time and in such manner as may be calculated to produce the minimum amount of inconvenience and embarrassment.—*North Carolina*.

Ninety-two percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to dismiss or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard."³

¹ See Appendix Table 20, Item 13.
² *Ibid.*, Item 7.
³ *Ibid.*, Item 14.

Sixteen violations of this standard were reported. The following are typical cases:

1. A supervisor recommended the dismissal of a teacher without first informing her that she was not giving satisfaction.

2. A superintendent failed to notify some of his teachers that they were not to be reelected. These teachers received no warning of the true situation until they found their names omitted from the list of elections which appeared in the newspaper.

3. To a principal who, upon renewal of his contract, would have come under the provision for

legal tenure, the superintendent's only remark was: "I haven't anything to say. I might hurt myself."

4. A teacher had been employed in a school system for four years. Although there was some dissatisfaction with her work, no suggestions for improvement had been made by the superintendent. When she was not asked to return to her position for a fifth year, no explanation was given, and she found herself without employment and decidedly hurt over the situation. She did not know, until the day before the close of school in June, that other teachers had received reappointment, while she had received none.

CHAPTER IX

Standards of Conduct in Connection with Teachers' Agencies, Publishing and School Supply Houses

Teachers frequently have professional contact with commercial organizations of three types—teachers' agencies, publishing companies and school supply houses. This chapter presents the standards of conduct suggested by the codes which teachers should observe in their relationships with these organizations.

Teachers' Agencies

The teacher should deal only with teachers' agencies which operate in conformity with recognized professional standards. Four of the codes mention the filing of an application for a position through a teachers' agency as proper procedure.¹ The following statement is typical:

It is proper for the candidate to make his qualifications known to the school authorities, either directly or through a teachers agency.—*Massachusetts*.

Three of the codes² admonish teachers to condemn agencies which encourage teachers to violate generally accepted standards of professional conduct. The Pennsylvania code specifies this standard in greatest detail:

The profession should unhesitatingly condemn teachers' agencies that (1) encourage teachers to break their contracts, (2) work for the appointment or promotion of unqualified teachers, (3) make recommendations for positions not known positively to be vacant, or (4) induce teachers to leave their positions during the school year unless an honorable release should be secured.

No teacher or employing official should receive a commission or anything else of value from a teachers' agency. Two³ of the 33 codes included in this study as well as the code of ethics adopted by the National Association of Teachers' Agencies⁴ include this standard. Two violations of it were reported of which the following is representative:

A principal received a percentage of his teachers' salaries by securing them from a certain agency which offered a 10 percent commission to the person who reported vacancies.

Publishing and School Supply Houses

*The teacher should avoid any entanglement with or unearned favors from publishing houses or other firms commercially interested in the schools.*⁵ Seven of the codes stipulate that "The teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty or other reward, for books or supplies in the selection or purchase of which he can influence or exercise the right of decision."⁶ This statement has been criticized as being too broad in scope since it condemns accepted procedure in the case of superintendents and teachers who are authors of textbooks. The following statements avoid this difficulty:

1. Teachers employed by publishers and business houses that deal with teachers and boards of education or trustees should make such announcement of their connection as will prevent their recommendations from seeming disinterested.—*Georgia*.

2. It is unprofessional for superintendents and teachers, in their relations with publishing or supply houses, their agents or salesmen, to give just grounds for the suspicion of obligations tending to influence the purchase or adoption of books or supplies in favor of any particular agent or firm.—*New Hampshire*.

Powers reports that the laws in nine states forbid a teacher acting as agent or receiving a commission, royalty, or anything else of value for books or supplies which he officially helps to select, but that one (Minnesota) makes an exception of royalties on books written by the teacher on the grounds that "The writing of the best texts by the schoolmen is to be encouraged."⁷

The corresponding statements for physicians and judges are as follows:

¹ Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota.

² Louisiana, Pennsylvania, South Dakota.

³ National Education Association and Pennsylvania.

⁴ Heermance, Edgar L. *Op. cit.*, p. 489.

⁵ From the Ohio code.

⁶ National Education Association, Florida, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota.

⁷ Powers, J. Orin, "The Ethics of the Teaching Profession," *Journal of Educational Research* 12:272; November, 1925.

It is unprofessional to receive remuneration from patents for surgical instruments or medicines; to accept rebates on prescriptions or surgical appliances, or perquisites from attendants who aid in the care of patients.¹

He (a judge) should not accept any presents or favors from litigants, or from lawyers practising before him or from others whose interests are likely to be submitted to him for judgment.²

It is not necessary to the proper performance of judicial duty that a judge should live in retirement or seclusion; it is desirable that, so far as reasonable attention to the completion of his work will permit, he continue to mingle in social intercourse, and that he should not discontinue his interest in or appearance at meetings of members of the Bar. He should, however, in pending or prospective litigation before him be particularly careful to avoid such action as may reasonably tend to awaken the suspicion that his social or business relations or friendships, constitute an element in influencing his judicial conduct.³

Ninety-three percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to act as agent for or to receive a commission, royalty, or anything else of value from books or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision."⁴

Seven violations of this standard were reported of which the following are typical illustrations:

1. A principal told teachers that they would lose their positions if they failed to purchase books or have their classes purchase books of a local dealer.
2. A superintendent dismissed a high-school instructor because he, the instructor, failed to purchase room equipment from a friend of the superintendent.
3. A superintendent accepted as a personal gift a valuable collection of victrola records from a competing book concern.

The Massachusetts code includes the statement that "No teacher should accept the aid of an agent or any book or supply house in obtaining a teaching position." Brubacher points out the wisdom of this proscription with the significant comment that "Some superintendents carry book company tags on their professional reputations and live in hope of the company's

assistance in gaining professional advancement."⁵

The teacher should not write general testimonials for canvassers or other salesmen. The New Hampshire code is the only one of the 33 included in this study which proscribes this practice. However, it appears that a large proportion of the profession condemn it, since 78 percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to write general testimonials for salesmen" while only 7 percent approved the practice unqualifiedly.

The teacher should not solicit sample textbooks when there is no immediate prospect of a change of texts. The New Jersey and South Dakota codes condemn indiscriminate requests for sample textbooks. Their statements follow:

1. The practice of soliciting sample texts, when there is no serious or immediate prospect of a change or adoption, should be discouraged. Furthermore, teachers should not request sample books outside of their departments or the particular subjects they may be teaching. . . . The use of sample texts should be for the school only and any such books should not be sold unless the proceeds are applied to school funds.—*New Jersey*.
2. It is unprofessional for teachers to receive books gratis from publishing houses when there is not a real expectation of examining them for prospective texts.—*South Dakota*.

Forty-eight percent of those who returned the questionnaire of the National Education Association's Committee on Ethics reported that it is unethical "to solicit sample textbooks," 20 percent indicated that this practice is ethical, and 28 percent qualified their replies.⁶ The following violations of this standard were reported:

1. A teacher ordered many books as samples and kept them in her personal library.
2. A teacher wrote to many publishers for sample copies of readers. These she put into a classroom library.
3. A teacher wrote for sample textbooks. The various companies asked for statements of opinion regarding these books but the teacher did not give them.

¹ American Medical Association. *Op. cit.*, Chapter II, Article I, Section 5.

² American Bar Association. *Canons of Judicial Ethics*. No. 32.

³ American Bar Association. *Canons of Judicial Ethics*. No. 33.

⁴ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 39.

⁵ Brubacher, H. R., *Op. cit.*, p. 218.

⁶ See Appendix, Table 20, Item 38.

CHAPTER X

Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was threefold: (1) to discover current administrative practices regarding instruction in professional ethics; (2) to suggest administrative arrangements which professional schools for teachers may use to acquaint their students with the accepted standards of professional conduct; and (3) to prepare a selected and annotated list of standards of professional conduct which may be used as a basis for discussion in teacher training classes and among teachers in service.

The evidence presented in the first two chapters shows clearly that leaders in the eight professions studied are generally agreed that prospective members should receive instruction of some kind in the ethics of their respective callings. A large majority of the professional schools in each field report that they give some attention to the problems of professional conduct. On the other hand, there is a marked diversity of opinion as to the type of instruction which should be provided. This variation of opinion is reflected in a wide diversity of practice among professional schools. Some leaders assert that the incidental consideration of ethical problems in connection with regular subject matter is sufficient. Others argue that students cannot be adequately trained in accepted standards of professional conduct unless separate and distinct courses in this subject are provided. Still others take a middle ground, maintaining that while the consideration of this important topic must not be left to chance, the provision of separate courses in professional ethics is neither feasible nor effective. Members of this third group favor the systematic treatment of ethical problems in specific units of other courses. They point out that the latter policy eliminates the accidental aspect of ethical instruction, and that it provides systematic training without adding another course to the already crowded curriculum, and with less likelihood that the discussion of ethical principles will be divorced from practical school situations.

Leaders in the professional preparation of teachers are not generally inclined to favor separate courses in professional ethics. Most of them believe that the specific treatment of these problems in definite units of other courses

is sufficient to meet the needs of prospective teachers. However, the relatively even division of opinion and practice in this regard among schools of law, medicine, architecture, and journalism, together with the overwhelming trend toward separate courses in schools of dentistry and nursing, make it impossible to draw definite conclusions as to the relative merits of these two procedures. Extensive experimentation will be necessary to settle this question.

The principal conclusion of this study is that systematic instruction in professional ethics should be provided in every professional school for teachers. The question of whether this should be done in entirely separate courses or in specific units of certain other courses is of relatively minor importance. The essential thing is that the instruction should be systematic rather than merely incidental. The inculcation of high standards of professional conduct is too vital a matter to be left to chance.

The preceding statement, however, does not imply that the incidental treatment of professional ethics in other courses should be neglected. A great deal can be accomplished incidentally by instructors who are alert to the ethical implications of technical subject matter, and who are skillful in bringing these implications to the attention of their students. Incidental instruction in professional ethics should be encouraged. On the other hand, professional schools for teachers cannot afford to leave solely to casual instruction matters of so great importance.

In setting up a plan for systematic instruction in professional ethics, several important questions arise. How much time should be devoted to this subject? Should it be required or elective? In what year or years of the curriculum should it be placed? If this instruction is to be organized as specific units of other courses, in what course or courses does it belong? Most important of all, where may suitable subject matter for the discussion of ethical standards be found? The preceding chapters have suggested tentative answers to most of these questions.

No single set of administrative provisions can be formulated which will be suitable for

all institutions. Nevertheless, a consideration of the needs of prospective teachers, and the application of certain principles of curriculum construction have led to the following proposals:

1. That systematic instruction in professional ethics be provided in each curriculum offered.
2. That this instruction be a prescribed part of every graduate's professional preparation.
3. That incidental treatment of the problems of professional conduct be given whenever pertinent in all courses.
4. That the units devoted to systematic instruction in this subject be located, if possible, in three different places in each curriculum: (a) in the first year of training; (b) during the practice teaching period; and (c) during the last months of the training period.

This plan is expressed in general terms, and is merely suggestive. The important thing is not that the details of any particular plan should be universally adopted, but rather that all institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers should provide for each student the most effective program of systematic instruction possible.

The second part of this study contains a large amount of material on existing standards of professional conduct for teachers. This material is selected and organized for the definite purpose of stimulating constructive discussion.

Certain standards of practice have received more or less general acceptance among teachers. Many of these have been included in the various codes studied. Others included in some of the codes have not yet received general approval from the profession at large. Many questions as to what constitutes proper professional conduct, therefore, remain to be settled. Progress toward the development of group opinion for or against these standards can best be made by thorough discussion of general principles and by careful consideration of concrete cases viewed in the light of all factors involved, including the influence of the practices in question on the development of the profession and on its service to social progress.

The material presented here may be used in several ways: (1) as a guide for instructors in professional schools for teachers; (2) as a handbook for the students in these schools; (3) as a manual for study by state and local teachers' associations; and (4) as a part of the

in-service training of teachers under the direction of superintendents of schools and others. The supplementary references and the annotated bibliography contain suggestions for further reading and study in the field.

One unfortunate characteristic of many existing statements of ethical standards for teachers is that they are too general and indefinite. The tendency in recent years has been toward greater definiteness both in the revision of old codes and in the preparation of new ones, but there is still room for much improvement in this regard. Those who prepare codes for official adoption should give special attention to this problem. Students in training institutions, with little or no experience as teachers, cannot be expected to comprehend standards of professional conduct unless these standards are stated in terms of specific, concrete situations which they will encounter during active service in the profession.

It is impossible, of course, to mention in any code of ethics all of the various specific situations in which right conduct is desired. A certain amount of generalization, therefore, is inevitable, but a sufficient number of concrete situations should be available to furnish definite and vivid concepts of the general principles under consideration. At present the task of vitalizing existing standards rests largely with instructors in schools for the preparation of teachers. This study offers assistance in this task by supplementing statements from existing codes with numerous examples of the actual violation of standards in specific school situations.

Interest in the improvement of professional relationships has spread rapidly during the last thirty years. This growing interest has manifested itself in industrial and professional circles in the development of codes of ethics and statements of standard practices. Teachers as a group have been followers rather than leaders in the formulation and adoption of official codes, but in the main the acceleration of interest among them has been similar to that in other professional groups.

It is well that teachers are developing standards of practice for themselves, because their professional conduct is a matter of paramount concern. The Nation's corps of teachers is one of the largest and most important groups engaged in professional service. Upon no other

group does responsibility for preserving and enriching our civilization rest more squarely. Moreover, it appears that the weaknesses in our civilization are not so much in the fields of intellectual or material achievement as they are in the field of ethics. Therefore, if teaching is to fulfill its major responsibility, and if it is to maintain its proper place among other professions, teachers must progress constantly toward higher levels of professional conduct. Because of their peculiar opportunities for guiding and influencing the prospective members of all vocations, teachers have an added obligation to lead in the nationwide movement toward higher social levels.

For these reasons the recent growth of interest in professional ethics among teachers is especially encouraging. Nevertheless, much remains to be done if the promise given by recent activity in this field is to be fulfilled. There is at present a serious need for action

along three distinct lines: (1) a clearer definition of the standards set up in teachers' codes of ethics; (2) the promotion of a better understanding among the rank and file of teachers in regard to the issues involved in these standards; and (3) the creation of machinery for enforcement in cases where teachers willfully and persistently violate accepted standards of conduct. This study has been concerned with the first two of these problems only, and primarily with the second, the education of teachers everywhere regarding the approved practices of their profession. As the training which teachers receive in this field becomes more thorough and effective, the problem of enforcement should become proportionately less difficult. The arrangements proposed and the standards suggested will contribute, it is hoped, to the attainment of the leadership in social progress which is within the reach of the teaching profession.

Selected Bibliography

The following bibliography deals with professional ethics for teachers and other groups included in the foregoing study. The references are presented in two sections: I. Professional Ethics for Teachers, and II. Professional Ethics in Other Fields. Those included in Section I have been briefly annotated. In the second section the material cited is classified under these heads: Architecture, Business and Commerce, Dentistry, Journalism, Law, Medicine, and Nursing.

An attempt has been made to include only that material which is of most value to persons working on the subject of professional ethics for teachers. References to literature dealing with ethical standards and practices in the other professions are included for comparative purposes.

The codes of ethics adopted by the state teachers' associations, and considered in the preceding pages, are not listed below. They may be obtained in most cases from the secretaries of the respective associations. Copies of these codes and additional references on the whole problem of professional ethics for teachers are on file in the Research Division of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

I. Professional Ethics for Teachers

1. ALLEN, IRA M. *The Teacher's Contractual Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 304. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 147 p.

An analysis of court decisions relative to teachers' contracts. Compares certain legal and professional standards.

2. ALMACK, JOHN C. *The School Board Member*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. Chapter 7, "Conforming to Ethical Principles," p. 215-43.

Suggests importance of boards of education conforming to ethical principles of teaching profession. Prints Pennsylvania code for teachers and proposes a code for school boards.

3. ALMACK, JOHN C., and LANG, ALBERT R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925. Chapter 4, "The Ethics of the Profession," p. 59-75.

Discusses professional standards and codes of ethics, with especial reference to development and application of a code for teachers.

4. ANDERSON, EARL W. *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 246. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 180 p.

A critical analysis of contracts, rules and regulations of local school boards and statutory provisions affecting teachers' status.

5. ANDERSON, EARL W. "Hamstringing Our Teachers." *Atlantic Monthly* 145: 390-97; March, 1930.

Opposes rules and regulations denying teachers the freedom and independence in private life enjoyed by members of other professions.

6. ASPINWALL, W. B. "Code of Ethics for Teachers." *School and Society* 17: 640-44; June 9, 1923.

An attempt to present a more comprehensive and systematically organized code of ethics for teachers than hitherto formulated. Codes already adopted for teachers and other groups serve as a basis.

7. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. *Classroom Management*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1907. Chapter 18, "The Ethics of Schoolcraft," p. 267-73.

A pioneer discussion of professional ethics for teachers.

8. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and KEITH, JOHN A. H. *An Introduction to Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1924. Chapter 2, "Personal Qualifications for Teaching," p. 316-40; Chapter 12, "Specific Qualifications for Specialized Fields of the Teaching Service," p. 341-83.

Discusses personal qualifications and professional relationships essential for effective teaching.

9. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. "A Code of Professional Ethics for the Public School Service." *Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, 1917*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1917.

Proposes a code based on principles in state codes already adopted and personal experience.

10. BRUBACHER, ABRAM R. *Teaching: Profession and Practice*. New York: Century Company, 1927. 301 p.

Chapters 5 to 11 cover problems of teachers' professional ethics. Chapter 12 includes numerous cases for study and Chapter 13 presents a code for teachers.

11. CABOT, RICHARD C. *Adventures on the Borderlands of Ethics*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1926. 152 p.

A discussion of the growing interest in professional ethics; its significance and application, especially in medicine and business.

12. CHAMBERS, GEORGE G. "Ethics for the Teaching Profession." *Journal of the National Education Association* 11: 401-03; December, 1922.
Reprint from *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, May, 1922. Discusses codes of ethics in teaching with special reference to Pennsylvania code.
13. CHARTERS, W. W. *Teaching of Ideals*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927. 372 p.
Deals with problems of character education. Advocates definite and systematic instruction rather than incidental, haphazard procedures.
14. BROOME, EDWIN C., Chairman. "Report of the Committee on Propaganda—Abstract." *Proceedings*, 1929. Vol. 67. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1929. p. 204-17.
Discusses the entrance of propaganda into the schools through textbooks and other sources. Defines the problem, indicates its significance, and offers tentative conclusions, recommendations, and principles of action. The ethical obligations of teachers, administrators, and school boards regarding the relationship of the school to outside influences, are specifically mentioned.
15. "Code of Ethics of the Board of Education." *Colorado School Journal* 43: 16; May, 1928.
Suggests brief code for board members.
16. DEWEY, JOHN, and TUFTS, J. H. *Ethics*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1910. 618 p.
A general consideration of ethics.
17. EDMONSON, J. B., and SCHORLING, RALEIGH. *Problems of the High School Teacher*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1924.
Problems 58 to 68 concern professional duties and responsibilities. Problem 66 includes an early draft of the Michigan State Code for Teachers, and Problem 67, tentative code for superintendents and school board members.
18. ETTINGER, WILLIAM L. "The Ethical Standards of the Teacher." *School and Society* 17: 568-72; May 26, 1923.
Address delivered before Schoolmasters' Association of New York, April 20, 1922. Outlines some of the essential features of a code of ethics for teachers.
19. EVENDEN, EDWARD S. "What Courses in Education are Desirable in the Four-Year Curriculum of a State Teachers College." *Proceedings*, 1926. Vol. 64. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1926. p. 889-903.
Reports a survey of education courses offered in four-year training curricula for elementary teachers. Proposes list of such courses as a part of a teachers college curriculum.
20. EVENDEN, EDWARD S. "Criteria for the Construction of Teachers College Curricula." *Proceedings*, 1926. Vol. 64. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1926. p. 285-93.
Raises fundamental problems regarding training curricula for teachers. Proposes nine principles of curriculum making, and advocates an investigation to evaluate elements and practices of different curricula.
21. EWING, STEPHEN. "Blue Laws for School Teachers." *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, 156: 329-38; February, 1928.
Is against rules and regulations limiting unduly the freedom and independence of teachers in private life.
22. FORBES, GEORGE M. "Professional Code of Ethics for Teachers." *Journal of Education* 84: 593-4, 606; December 14, 1916.
Deals with responsibility to society of members of a profession, and resulting ethical obligations. Discusses fundamental ethical principles of a code for teachers.
23. GOLIGHTLY, T. J. "A College Teacher's Creed." *Peabody Journal of Education* 5: 131-34; November, 1927.
Discusses briefly relation between college teacher and his superiors, colleagues, and students.
24. HEERMANCE, EDGAR L. *Codes of Ethics*. Burlington, Vermont: Free Press Printing Company, 1924. 525 p.
Handbook containing codes of ethics for over 200 professions and occupations. Includes code of National League of Teachers Associations, state codes from Michigan, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, tentative code for superintendents and boards of education (p. 490-504), codes of the National Association of Teachers' Agencies (p. 489) and National School Supply Association (p. 472-473).
25. "Helping the New Teacher." *Ohio Schools* 8: 5, 29; January, 1930.
Would have the National Education Association's code of ethics include some statement regarding duty of teachers to help their associates, especially new ones.
26. HILLBRAND, E. K. "Securing a Teaching Position." *Journal of the National Education Association* 17: 86; March, 1928.
A brief discussion of procedures in seeking a teaching position. Condemns broadcasting letters of application or inquiry as creating an erroneous impression regarding available supply of teachers. Includes most of the important items mentioned in this connection by state codes of ethics.

27. HINES, HARLAN C. *Finding the Right Teaching position*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. 200 p.

A suggestive presentation of problems faced by teacher seeking a position. States that there is little likelihood of return from circular letters of application or chance letters of inquiry. Advocates serious attention to problems of supply and demand and teacher placement.

28. HORNE, HERMAN H. "The Teacher's Code of Honor." *School and Society* 19: 477-482; August 26, 1924.

Defines and gives reasons for "teachers' code of honor." Presents a code.

29. HOTCHKISS, J. V. "The Ethics of the Teacher." *Ohio Educational Monthly* 58: 376-83; July, 1919.

Points out need of greater emphasis on standards of ethics in the profession, discusses the teacher in his professional relations.

30. HOWE, C. M. "Teachers' Ethics as Viewed by Teachers." *School and Society* 16: 546-49; November 11, 1922.

Presents and reviews code of ethics adopted by Cincinnati Teachers Association, June, 1922.

31. KING, CLYDE L., editor. "The Ethics of the Professions and of Business." *Annals* 101: 1-315; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.

A comprehensive discussion of significance of codes of professional ethics and their possibilities for social control. Presents codes, creeds, or standards of practice of 22 different vocational groups, including code of Pennsylvania State Education Association.

32. KOOS, LEONARD V. *The American Secondary School*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1927. p. 673-9.

Chapter 18, "The High-School Staff," includes discussion of ethics of the teaching profession, based largely on the article by Powers. (See reference number 48.)

33. LANDIS, BENSON Y. *Professional Codes*. Contributions to Education, No. 267. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 108 p.

A sociological analysis to determine the application of professional codes to the teaching profession. Twelve vocational groups were studied with regard to social situations occasioning their codes, methods of meeting and defining these situations, types of code involved, mechanisms of enforcement, and effectiveness. Questions the value of codes for social control unless widely disseminated and definitely enforced.

34. LEE, EDWIN A. "The Need for a Professional Spirit." *School and Society* 15: 659-66; June 17, 1922.

Deplores lack of professional standards and unity in teaching profession as compared to law and medicine. Presents tentative code of ethics, involving six material standards and creed.

35. LEHMAN, W. G. "A Principal's Code." *Educational Research Bulletin*, 5: 152; March 31, 1926.

A brief code of ethics relating to conduct of the school principal in certain types of activities not considered in other codes.

36. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. New York: Century Co., 1925. Chapter 21, "Ethics of the Teaching Profession," p. 413-27.

Discusses need of code of ethics for teaching profession. Distinguishes between a "business" and a "profession." Presents Pennsylvania code for teachers as a model.

37. MARSH, J. FRANK. *The Teacher Outside the School*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1928. 234 p.

Includes discussion of many problems of professional ethics, especially in Chapter 5, "Ethics, Personal and Professional," p. 66-82, and Chapter 10, "Social Life," p. 154-71. Code adopted by Michigan State Teachers Association appears on p. 72-5; by Ohio Association, p. 76-9; and by the Massachusetts Superintendents' Association, p. 75.

38. MASSACHUSETTS. *Professional Ethics in Normal Schools*. Department of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 2, Whole number 142. Boston: Wright and Potter Printing Company, 1923. 32 p.

Manual for use as guide in courses in professional ethics offered by teacher-training institutions.

39. MCANDREW, WILLIAM. "Educational Ethics for Boston." *Educational Review* 75: 61-64; February, 1928.

Editorial on Boston code of ethics.

40. MILLER, GEORGE F. "Chaff in the Code of Ethics." *Phi Delta Kappan* 12: 170-72; April, 1930.

A protest against certain general statements in code of ethics adopted by National Education Association.

41. MUIR, SARAH T., chairman. "Committee on Ethics of the Profession." *Proceedings*, 1925. Vol. 63. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1925. p. 241-43.

Discusses briefly the need of a professional code of ethics for teachers, some points in state codes already adopted, and prospective work of committee of National Education Association appointed to formulate a code.

42. MUIR, SARAH T., chairman. "Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession." *Proceedings, 1927*. Vol. 65. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1927. p. 197-200.

Reports a study of how well the state codes are functioning.
43. MUIR, SARAH T., chairman. "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession." *Proceedings, 1929*. Vol. 67. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1929. p. 179-90.

Includes code of ethics adopted by National Education Association, and judgments of 1,606 educators regarding 39 questionable practices, with list of unethical practices reported. Recommends that training institutions give every student opportunity for becoming familiar with provisions of the code; that each state teachers' organization establish a committee on professional ethics.
44. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION. *Report: The Ethics of the Teaching Profession*. (Sarah T. Muir, Chairman.) Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, July, 1926. 61 p.

Traces evolution of codes of ethics and analyzes 28 state codes for teachers.
45. NUTT, HUBERT W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Co., 1928. Chapter 2, "Ethics in Supervision," p. 3-14.

Includes proposed codes for supervisors and persons supervised.
46. OLSEN, HANS C. *The Work of Boards of Education*. Contributions to Education, No. 213. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 169 p.

Detailed analysis of responsibilities of board of education in determining policies, and of superintendent as executive officer of the board.
47. PHELPS, W. R. "Code of Ethics." *High School Quarterly* 16: 84-85; January, 1928.

A code of ethics for the principal in his relations to his school.
48. POWERS, J. ORIN. "Ethics of the Teaching Profession." *Journal of Educational Research* 12: 262-74; November, 1925.

Analyzes and summarizes existing codes of ethics for teachers in convenient form.
49. PRYOR, H. C. "A Code of Parent-Teacher Ethics." *Journal of Education* 104: 516-17; November 29, 1926.

Presents code setting forth duties of parents to school.
50. PULLIAM, ROSCOE. *Extra-Instructional Activities of the Teacher*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1930. Chapters 12-15, p. 326-447.

Discussion of several problems of professional ethics, especially relations of teachers with parents and associates, and their professional obligations.
51. REEDER, WARD G. "The Need of a National Code of Ethics for Teachers." *School and Society* 25: 417-21; April 9, 1927.

Presents arguments for formulating national code of ethics for teachers.
52. REEDER, WARD G. "Ethics of the Teaching Profession." *Journal of the National Education Association* 18: 260-61; November, 1929.

Code of ethics adopted by National Education Association, with brief account of its development.
53. REINEL, JOHN F. "A Code of Ethics for Counselors." *Vocational Guidance Magazine* 8: 263-4; March, 1930.

Proposes a code for counselors, to guide in their relations with the child, parents, school, community, the profession, and in their own conduct.
54. ROSS, EDWARD A. "Making of the Professions." *International Journal of Ethics* 27: 67-81; October, 1916.

Deals with professional ethics, establishment of codes of ethics and their enforcement. Recommends greater emphasis on ethical instruction.
55. SEARS, JESSE B. *Classroom Organization and Control*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Chapters 16-20, p. 293-391.

Considers the teacher's personality, health, training, and growth in their relation to his work.
56. SELIGMAN, EDWIN R. A. "Propaganda by Public Utility Corporations." *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors* 16: 349-68; May, 1930.

Prepared at request of Committee on Ethics of the American Association of University Professors.
57. STRAYER, GEORGE D. and OTHERS. *Problems in Educational Administration*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Problem 116, "Ethical Considerations," p. 748-55.

Suggests 14 problems in professional ethics. Includes codes of Michigan and Utah state teachers' associations.

58. SUZZALLO, HENRY. "Professional Ethics." *Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education*. Vol. 3. New York: Macmillan Company, 1925. p. 536.

States some of the basic principles of professional ethics which appeared to have found wide acceptance among American teachers.

59. TAEUSCH, CARL F. "Proposed Teachers' Code of Ethics." *School and Society* 23: 115-117; January 23, 1926.

Presents code setting forth duties of teacher in relation to his pupils, self-development, and profession.

60. "Teacher or Factory Hand." *Atlantic Monthly* 145: 500-502; April, 1930. Also *Journal of the National Education Association* 19: 171-72; June, 1930.

A protest against the system of education which does not allow the teacher time or opportunity to know and help the individual pupil.

61. TEAGARDEN, FLORENCE M. "Professional Ethics for Educators." *Journal of the National Education Association* 13: 64-7; February, 1924.

Tells of progress in adoption of local and state codes of ethics for teachers. Urges formulation of national code, instruction in professional ethics in all teacher-training institutions, and establishment of national, state, and local commissions to interpret, revise, and enforce the codes.

62. TEAGARDEN, FLORENCE M. "Bibliography of Professional Codes of Ethics for Educators." *School and Society* 20: 599-601; November 8, 1924.

List of references on ethics of teaching and other professions.

63. "Tentative Code of Ethics for Superintendents and Boards of Education." *Texas Outlook* 7: 16; August, 1923.

Reprint of tentative code proposed in Michigan.

64. THOMAS, MAURICE J. "School Boards and Teacher Hire." *Washington Education Journal* 9: 201-2; March, 1930.

A protest against nepotism. Refers to embarrassing complications and inefficiency that arise when relatives of board members are employed as teachers.

65. WALSH, MATTHEW J. *Teaching as a Profession*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1926. 587 p.

Devoted largely to ethical standards of teaching. Bibliographies given at close of chapters.

66. WICKEY, N. J. GOULD. "Ethics for Teachers." *Journal of the National Education Association* 13: 261-63; September-October, 1924.

Deals with content and desirable features of codes of ethics for teachers. Presents in brief outline a general basis for formulation of a code.

67. WOODLEY, OSCAR I., and WOODLEY, M. VIRGINIA. *The Profession of Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Chapter 2, "School Ethics," p. 19-41.

Takes up problems of professional ethics.

II. Professional Ethics in Other Fields

Architecture

68. AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS. "A Circular of Advice Relative to Principles of Professional Practice and the Canons of Ethics." *Annals* 101: 277-81; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
69. LORCH, EMIL. "The Architectural Student and His Relation to Professional Practice." *Annals* 101: 114-20; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
70. SELLARS, HORACE W. "The Ethical Standards of the Architects and the Procedure for Their Enforcement." *Annals* 101: 108-14; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Business and Commerce

71. HEERMANCE, EDGAR L. *The Ethics of Business*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1926. 244 p.
72. LEE, JAMES MELVIN. *Business Ethics*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1926. 312 p.
73. LORD, EVERETT W. *Fundamentals of Business Ethics*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1926. 196 p.
74. TAEUSCH, CARL F. *Professional and Business Ethics*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1926. 370 p.
75. U. S. CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *Principles of Business Conduct*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Chamber of Commerce, 1924. Pamphlet, 22 p. Reprint from: Parker, Edwin B. "The Fifteen Commandments of Business." *Nation's Business* 12: 16; June 5, 1924.
76. YOST, CASPER S. "A Business Code of Ethics." *World's Work* 43: 471-3; March, 1922.

Dentistry

77. BROTHERS, ELMER DEWITT. *Dental Jurisprudence*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1914.
78. "Code of Ethics of the National Dental Association." *Annals* 101: 266-7; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
79. KENT, EDWIN N. *The Business Side of Dentistry*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1929. 180 p.
80. WHITING, A. D. "The Professional Organizations, Training and Ethical Codes of Physicians, Dentists, Nurses and Pharmacists." *Annals* 101: 51-67; May, 1922. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Journalism

81. BLEYER, WILLARD GROSVENOR, editor. *The Profession of Journalism*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1918.
82. CRAWFORD, NELSON ANTRIM. *Ethics of Journalism*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1924. 264 p.
83. FLINT, LEON NELSON. *Conscience of the Newspaper*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1925. 470 p.
84. LAHEY, THOMAS A. *Morals of Newspaper Making*. Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notre Dame, 1924. 180 p.
85. MYERS, JOSEPH S., compiler. *The Journalistic Code of Ethics*. Ohio State University Bulletin Vol. 26, No. 8. Journalism Series Vol. 1, No. 4. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University. February 18, 1922. 35 p.

Law

86. AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION. *Canons of Professional and Judicial Ethics*. Baltimore: Lord Baltimore Press. 31 p.
87. ARCHER, GLEASON LEONARD. *Ethical Obligations of the Lawyer*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1910. 367 p.
88. CARTER, ORIN N. *Ethics of the Legal Profession*. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1915. 116 p.
89. COHEN, JULIUS HENRY. *Law: Business or Profession*. New York: G. A. Jennings Co., 1924. 513 p.

90. COSTIGAN, GEORGE P. *Cases and Other Authorities on Legal Ethics*. St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1917.
91. JESSUP, HENRY WYNANS. *Professional Ideals of the Lawyer*. New York: G. A. Jennings Co., 1925. 292 p.
92. WARVELLE, GEORGE W. *Essays in Legal Ethics*. Chicago: Callaghan and Co., 1920. 234 p.

Medicine

93. AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION. *Principles of Medical Ethics*. Chicago: the Association. 1926. 28 p.
94. CATHELL, DANIEL W., and CATHELL, WILLIAM T. *Book on the Physician Himself and Things that Concern His Reputation and Success*. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co., 1913.
95. COPPENS, CHARLES. *Moral Principles and Medical Practices*. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1921.
96. SAUNDBY, ROBERT. *Medical Ethics*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1907.

Nursing

97. AIKENS, CHARLOTTE A. *Studies in Ethics for Nurses*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1923.
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APPENDIX

TABLE 20.—SUMMARY OF JUDGMENTS BY TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS
ON 39 QUESTIONABLE PRACTICES¹

Is It Ethical?	Total "Yes"	Per- cent "Yes"	Total "No"	Per- cent "No"	Total "De- pends"	Percent "De- pends"	Total Un- an- swered	Per- cent Un- ans'd	Total Re- plies
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. To apply for a position not known to be vacant? . . .	154	10	1049	65	374	23	29	2	1606
2. For a teacher to apply for a position directly to a board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive?	175	11	1055	65	362	23	14	1	1606
3. To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly?	381	24	715	45	487	30	23	1	1606
4. To fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted?	170	10	1317	82	91	6	28	2	1606
5. To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is the superintendent of schools?	703	44	351	22	529	33	23	1	1606
6. For a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services?	45	3	1536	96	22	1	3	0	1606
7. For a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him before he has conferred with her present official?	233	14	1157	72	191	12	25	2	1606
8. To issue or use a "to-whom-it-may-concern" testimonial?	575	36	682	42	293	18	56	4	1606
9. To fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations?	127	8	1204	75	252	16	23	1	1606
10. To bid or underbid for a position?	101	6	1382	86	98	6	25	2	1606
11. To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position?	453	28	898	56	233	15	22	1	1606
12. To enter a combination to force increases in salaries?	255	16	829	51	495	31	27	2	1606
13. To break a contract to accept another position?	66	4	1092	68	416	26	32	2	1606
14. To dismiss, or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard?	37	2	1470	92	87	5	12	1	1606
15. To endeavor to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising?	42	3	1492	93	65	4	7	0	1606
16. To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents?	35	2	1492	93	75	5	4	0	1606
17. To teach one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils?	33	2	1474	92	86	5	13	1	1606
18. To accept pay for tutoring one's own pupils?	127	8	1075	67	385	24	19	1	1606
19. To accept gifts from pupils?	378	24	471	29	714	44	43	3	1606
20. To accept pupils expelled from other schools until the expelling authority has been consulted?	81	5	1346	84	163	10	16	1	1606
21. For school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies?	283	18	870	54	416	26	37	2	1606
22. To go "over the heads" of one's superiors?	36	2	1136	71	392	24	42	3	1606
23. To fail to support school policies until they are changed even though one does not agree with them?	62	4	1364	85	157	10	23	1	1606
24. To violate official correspondence or conversation among teachers?	37	2	1519	95	18	1	32	2	1606
25. For school officials to change pupils' marks?	37	2	1320	82	219	14	30	2	1606
26. For school officials to take the side of pupils against teachers?	32	2	898	56	630	39	46	3	1606
27. For one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems?	27	2	1464	91	101	6	14	1	1606
28. To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked?	58	4	1455	90	78	5	15	1	1606
29. To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency within the profession?	801	50	393	24	384	24	28	2	1606
30. To fail to be a progressive student of education?	80	5	1417	88	59	4	50	3	1606
31. To fail to encourage the fit to enter, and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession?	199	12	1247	78	101	6	59	4	1606
32. To use the profession as a stepping-stone to other professions or vocations?	387	24	696	43	489	30	34	2	1606
33. To criticise the profession?	372	23	699	44	489	30	46	3	1606
34. To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign?	606	38	477	30	483	30	40	2	1606
35. To engage in a practice of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve?	109	7	1046	65	409	25	42	3	1606
36. To fail to participate in activities for community betterment?	78	5	1270	79	215	13	43	3	1606
37. To write general testimonials for salesmen?	107	7	1248	78	210	13	41	2	1606
38. To solicit sample textbooks?	323	20	777	48	450	28	56	4	1606
39. To act as an agent for, or receive a commission, royalty, or anything of value from books or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision?	55	3	1486	93	56	3	9	1	1606

¹ Obtained by combining and condensing Tables 2, 3, and 4 included in the "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession," *Proceedings, 1929*. National Education Association. p. 179-90.

TABLE 21.—UNETHICAL PRACTICES REPORTED BY TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS IN A STUDY BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION'S COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION¹

Name of Practice	Frequency				
	Class-room Teachers	Administrative Subordinates	Chief Executives	Total	Rank
Gossiping about and criticizing other teachers.....	207	111	121	439	1
Slurring the profession.....	152	65	57	274	2
Breaking a contract.....	54	60	93	207	3
Applying for positions not known to be vacant.....	39	57	109	205	4
Exaggerating qualifications, and failure to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations.....	50	41	84	175	5
Cultivating friendship among board members and their families in an attempt to exercise a "pull".....	52	49	64	165	6
Failure to be a progressive student of education.....	61	46	57	164	7
Failure to support school policies until they are changed.....	51	48	61	160	8
Underbidding for a position.....	43	38	69	150	9
Going over the head of an administrative superior.....	36	52	45	133	10
Discussing pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents.....	52	46	29	127	11
Permitting selfish reasons to influence one's actions toward pupils....	53	21	25	99	12
Possessing bad personal habits.....	41	15	42	98	13
Failure to participate in activities for community betterment.....	37	31	28	96	14
Using the profession as a stepping stone to another vocation.....	43	25	26	94	15
Failure to defend other members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked.....	39	29	25	93	16
School officials making policies without consulting their administrative subordinates.....	52	21	15	88	17
Dismissing teachers without giving them ample notice and an opportunity to be heard.....	40	32	14	86	18
Violating official correspondence or conversation.....	40	21	14	85	19
Failure to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been secured.....	24	15	37	76	20
Endeavoring to secure or maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising.....	33	14	22	69	21
Applying for a position directly to the board of education instead of to the superintendent.....	9	15	28	52	22
A school official going to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him before he has conferred with her present officials.....	13	7	31	51	23
Securing, or holding a position through "pull".....	21	19	10	50	24
Failure of school officials to recommend their teachers for better positions in other communities because of disinclination to lose their services.....	15	17	17	49	25
Teaching one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils....	17	11	11	39	26
School officials being influenced by "pull" and politics.....	19	13	6	38	27
Issuing and using general testimonials.....	4	5	26	35	28
Accepting a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board of education or superintendent.....	11	5	15	31	29
Failure to encourage the fit to enter and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession.....	14	4	9	27	30
School officials unjustly taking the side of pupils against teachers....	13	7	5	25	31.5
Conspiring to undermine one's administrative superiors and coworkers....	4	18	3	25	31.5
School officials changing marks which teachers have given to pupils....	17	4	3	24	33
Failure to support teachers associations.....	11	7	5	23	34
Professional jealousy.....	7	7	7	21	35.3
Acting as agent for, or receiving a reward from the purchase of school books, equipment, or supplies over which one has jurisdiction.....	10	4	7	21	35.3
Unwarranted solicitation of sample textbooks.....	8	5	8	21	35.3
Accepting a position from which the preceding incumbent was dismissed unjustly.....	8	3	9	20	38.5
Interfering between another teacher and one of her pupils.....	14	2	4	20	38.5
Teaching for salary only.....	5	9	4	18	40
Accepting gifts from pupils.....	7	5	5	17	41
Admitting pupils expelled from other schools before the expelling authority has been consulted.....	4	5	6	15	42
Permitting and encouraging pupils to make slurring remarks about other teachers.....	11	3	1	15	43
Writing testimonials for salesmen.....	4	3	7	14	44.5
Permitting teachers to be discharged unjustly without protesting....	10	2	2	14	44.5
"Passing the buck".....	4	4	5	13	46.3
Applying for positions which one is not qualified to fill.....	4	2	7	13	46.3
Failure to censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, and inefficiency within the profession.....	4	2	7	13	46.3
Gossiping about the community by which one is employed.....	4	8	12	49.3
Accepting pay from one's pupils for tutoring them.....	4	8	12	49.3
Permitting other work to interfere with school duties.....	5	4	3	12	49.3
Assuming credit which should go to some other person.....	6	4	1	11	52
"Kow-towing" to administrative superiors in the hope of personal gain.....	7	2	1	10	53

¹ This table is a reproduction of Table 6 in the "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession," *Proceedings, 1929*. National Education Association. p. 190.

TABLE 22.—LAW SCHOOLS IN THE CATALOGUES OF WHICH DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL (LEGAL) ETHICS WERE NOTED

State	City	School	Catalogue Year	Page
Arkansas.....	Fayetteville.....	University of Arkansas.....	1924-25	9
California.....	Berkeley.....	University of California.....	1927-28	16
California.....	Los Angeles.....	University of Southern California.....	1927-28	16
Colorado.....	Boulder.....	University of Colorado.....	1928-29	15
Connecticut.....	New Haven.....	Yale University.....	1927-28	18
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	Catholic University.....	1928-29	9
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	Georgetown University.....	1926-27	17
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	George Washington University.....	1928-29	28
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	Washington College of Law.....	1925-26	9
Florida.....	Deland.....	Stetson University.....	1923-24	16
Florida.....	Gainesville.....	University of Florida.....	1927-28	18
Georgia.....	Macon.....	Mercer University.....	1928-29	28
Idaho.....	Moscow.....	University of Idaho.....	1927-28	12
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	Chicago-Kent.....	1926-27	11
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	DePaul University.....	1928-29	15
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	John Marshall.....	1927-28	14
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	Loyola University.....	1927-28	15
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	Northwestern University.....	1926-27	22
Illinois.....	Urbana.....	University of Illinois.....	1928-29	20
Indiana.....	Bloomington.....	Indiana University.....	ss-27 ¹
Iowa.....	Des Moines.....	Drake University.....	1927-28	13
Kansas.....	Lawrence.....	University of Kansas.....	1927-28	16
Kansas.....	Topeka.....	Washburn College.....	1928-29	14
Louisiana.....	New Orleans.....	Loyola University.....	1928-29	16
Louisiana.....	New Orleans.....	Tulane University.....	1928-29	30
Massachusetts.....	Boston.....	Boston University.....	1928-29	11
Michigan.....	Detroit.....	University of Detroit.....	1928-29	17
Minnesota.....	St. Paul.....	College of Law.....	1926-27	7
Mississippi.....	University.....	University of Mississippi.....	1927-28	108
Missouri.....	Columbia.....	University of Missouri.....	1925-26	18
Missouri.....	Kansas City.....	K. C. School of Law.....	1928-29	25
Missouri.....	St. Louis.....	St. Louis University.....	1927-28	14
Missouri.....	St. Louis.....	Washington University.....	1928-29	24
Montana.....	Missoula.....	University of Montana.....	1926-27	158
Nebraska.....	Omaha.....	Creighton University.....	1928-29	19-22
New York.....	Albany.....	Union University.....	1927-28	15
Ohio.....	Ada.....	Northern University.....	1926-27	23
Ohio.....	Columbus.....	Ohio State University.....	1928-29	20
Pennsylvania.....	Philadelphia.....	University of Pennsylvania.....	1928-29	18
Philippines.....	Manila.....	University of P. I.....	1927-28	219
South Carolina.....	Columbia.....	University of South Carolina.....	1924-25	178
Tennessee.....	Lebanon.....	Cumberland University.....	1927-28	7
Texas.....	Austin.....	University of Texas.....	1928-29	16
Virginia.....	Charlottesville.....	University of Virginia.....	1927-28	11
Washington.....	Seattle.....	University of Washington.....	1928-29	14
Wisconsin.....	Madison.....	University of Wisconsin.....	1927-28	19
Wisconsin.....	Milwaukee.....	Marquette University.....	1928-29	24

¹ Summer Session, 1927.

TABLE 23.—MEDICAL SCHOOLS IN THE CATALOGUES OF WHICH DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS WERE NOTED

State	City	School	Catalogue Year	Page
Arkansas.....	Little Rock.....	University of Arkansas.....	1928-29	47
California.....	Loma Linda.....	College of Medical Evangelists.....	1927-28	55
Colorado.....	Boulder.....	University of Colorado.....	1928-29	31
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	Georgetown University.....	1927-28	22-39
District of Columbia.....	Washington.....	Geo. Washington University.....	1927-28	52
Illinois.....	Chicago.....	Loyola University.....	1927-28	82-84
Kansas.....	Rosedale.....	University of Kansas.....	1928-29	34
Kentucky.....	Louisville.....	University of Louisville.....	1928-29	96
Massachusetts.....	Boston.....	Boston University.....	1928-29	32
Massachusetts.....	Boston.....	Tufts College.....	1927-28	38
Michigan.....	Detroit.....	Detroit College of Medicine.....	1927-28	47
Missouri.....	St. Louis.....	St. Louis University.....	1927-28	101
Missouri.....	St. Louis.....	Washington University.....	1928-29	120
Nebraska.....	Omaha.....	Creighton University.....	1928-29	15
New York.....	Brooklyn.....	Long Island College Hospital.....	1928-29	59
New York.....	Buffalo.....	University of Buffalo.....	1927-28	21
New York.....	New York.....	Univ. & Bellevue Hospital.....	1928-29	62
New York.....	New York.....	Homeopathic Med. College.....	1927-28	4
North Dakota.....	University.....	University of North Dakota.....	1928-29	14
Ohio.....	Cleveland.....	Western Reserve University.....	1927-28	96
Oklahoma.....	Norman.....	University of Oklahoma.....	1928-29	35
Pennsylvania.....	Philadelphia.....	Temple University.....	1927-28	34
Tennessee.....	Nashville.....	Meharry Medical College.....	1927	27
Texas.....	Galveston.....	University of Texas.....	1928-29	41
Virginia.....	Charlottesville.....	University of Virginia.....	1928-29	23
Virginia.....	Richmond.....	Medical College of Virginia.....	1928-29	58
Wisconsin.....	Madison.....	University of Wisconsin.....	1928-29	49
Wisconsin.....	Milwaukee.....	Marquette University.....	1928-29	52

TABLE 24.—PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS IN THE CATALOGUES OF WHICH DEFINITE COURSES IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS WERE NOTED

State	City	Institution	Date of catalogue	Page
California.....	Santa Barbara.....	State Teachers College.....	1928-29	35
Colorado.....	Gunnison.....	State Teachers College.....	1927-28	49
Connecticut.....	Danbury.....	State Normal School.....	1927-28	19
Connecticut.....	New Britain.....	State Normal School.....	1927-28	
Connecticut.....	New Haven.....	State Normal School.....	1927-28	26, 27
Connecticut.....	Willimantic.....	State Normal School.....	1926-27	17
Illinois.....	Evanston.....	State Teachers College.....	1928-29	47
Massachusetts.....	Bridgewater.....	State Teachers College.....	1928-29	9
Massachusetts.....	Fitchburg.....	State Normal School.....	1927	13
Massachusetts.....	Lowell.....	State Normal School.....	1926	7
Massachusetts.....	North Adams.....	State Normal School.....	1927	25
Michigan.....	Ypsilanti.....	State Teachers College.....	1926-27	111
North Carolina.....	Greenville.....	State Teachers College.....	1928-29	46*
North Dakota.....	Dickinson.....	State Normal School.....	1927-28	59
Rhode Island.....	Kingston.....	State Teachers College.....	1927-28	30
Texas.....	Kingsville.....	State Normal School.....	1927-28	*
Washington.....	Cheney.....	State Normal School.....	1926-27	61*

* While this course was not listed as a course in professional ethics, the description seemed to warrant its being classed as such.

TABLE 25.—DISTRIBUTION BY RESIDENCE AND POSITION OF THOSE WHO REPORTED VIOLATIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

State	Teacher	Principal	Supervisor	Superintendent	Miscellaneous	Total
Alabama.....		2	1			3
Arizona.....	1					1
Arkansas.....		1		1		2
California.....	1				1	2
Colorado.....	1	5		2		8
Connecticut.....	4	5		1	1	11
Delaware.....				1		1
District of Columbia.....	4	3	2			9
Florida.....		1				1
Georgia.....	1		1	1		3
Idaho.....				1		1
Illinois.....	2	5	1		3	11
Indiana.....	1	11	2	2		16
Iowa.....	2			1		3
Kansas.....		2		1		3
Kentucky.....	2			3	1	6
Louisiana.....			2			2
Maine.....	1		1	1		3
Maryland.....	2	3	3			8
Massachusetts.....	5	3	1	1	1	11
Michigan.....	5	4	1	4	1	15
Minnesota.....	4	4	1	3		12
Mississippi.....	1			1		2
Missouri.....	4	3		2		9
Montana.....				1		1
Nebraska.....	1		1	2	3	7
Nevada.....						
New Hampshire.....				1		1
New Jersey.....	3	10	2	1	1	17
New Mexico.....						
New York.....	27	32	3	3	5	70
North Carolina.....	6	8	5	2	2	23
North Dakota.....					1	1
Ohio.....	12	7	1	14	2	36
Oklahoma.....	1	4		5	1	11
Oregon.....						
Pennsylvania.....	14	17	1	1	3	36
Rhode Island.....						
South Carolina.....	2	3	1			6
South Dakota.....	1			1		2
Tennessee.....		1				1
Texas.....	2	5	1			8
Utah.....	1					1
Vermont.....	1				2	3
Virginia.....	4	3		3		10
Washington.....						
West Virginia.....	2		1			3
Wisconsin.....	4	3		1	1	9
Wyoming.....	1					1
Blank & Foreign.....	12	4	3	1	9	29
Total.....	135	149	35	62	38	419

FORM I—QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO THE SCHOOLS OF EIGHT
PROFESSIONS¹

INSTRUCTION IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

1. Does your institution offer a definite course in Professional Ethics for nurses?

Yes _____ No _____
(check one)

2. If question 1 is answered "Yes", please answer the following:

a. Is this course in Professional Ethics: Required? _____ or Elective? _____
(check one)

b. In what year of training is the course given? _____

c. How many semester hours of credit are given for the course? _____

d. By what department is this course given? _____

e. What textbooks are used in connection with this course?

Name of Book

Author

3. If question 1 is answered "No," please indicate below any courses given at your institution in which the problems of Professional Ethics are specifically included.

Name of Course

Year Offered

4. Are outlines of the courses mentioned in your replies to questions 2 and 3 available?

Yes _____ No _____
(check one)

Name of Person Reporting _____

Official Position _____

Institution _____

City _____ State _____

Please return this questionnaire to the Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.

If possible, please inclose the outlines referred to in question 4.

¹ Exactly the same form was sent to the schools of all eight professions, except that in Question 1 the appropriate profession was indicated by a distinguishing word, e. g., *lawyers, nurses, physicians, teachers, etc.*

FORM II—QUESTIONNAIRE TO STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET
WASHINGTON, D. C.

November 5, 1928

We are studying the problem of "Instruction in Professional Ethics in Teacher Training Institutions" and need the information suggested by the following questions:

1. Does the State Department of Education in your State control or supervise the curricula of the teacher training institutions of the State?

2. What suggestions or regulations has your Department made regarding instruction in Professional Ethics in the teacher training institutions of the State?

3. Will you kindly send us copies of instructions regarding instruction in Professional Ethics, or outlines of courses in this field, prepared, prescribed or suggested by your Department?

4. Do you know of any courses in Professional Ethics given by the teacher training institutions in your State not covered by the questions above?

5. Does the present arrangement in your State, regarding the matter of instruction in Professional Ethics in teacher training institutions, seem to be satisfactory?

6. If not, what changes would you suggest?

If you can send us the information suggested by these questions, we will appreciate your cooperation and will be glad to see that you receive a report of our findings.

Yours very sincerely,

John K. Norton,
Director, Research Division

FORM III—FORM USED IN COLLECTING STATEMENTS OF SPECIFIC
VIOLATIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS AMONG TEACHERS

We are studying the problem of "Professional Ethics among Teachers."

Kindly give below the salient facts regarding five cases which
you have observed in which Professional Ethics have been vio-
lated. Do not mention the names. Simply indicate as follows:

Teacher (principal, superintendent or supervisor) did - - - - -

I.

II.

III.

IV.

V.

Signed _____ Position _____

Address _____

SOURCES OF MAILING LISTS OF EXECUTIVE HEADS OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS TO WHOM QUESTIONNAIRE WAS SENT

1. Principals of City Public Normal Schools, from U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education. *Educational Directory*, Bulletin 1928, No. 1. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. p. 81-2.
2. Principals of State Public Normal Schools, from *Educational Directory*, 1928. p. 79-81.
3. Presidents of Teachers Colleges, from *Educational Directory*, 1928. p. 78-9.
4. Heads of Departments of Education in Universities and Colleges, from *Educational Directory*, 1928. p. 59-67.
5. Presidents or Deans of Schools of Law, from *Educational Directory*, 1928. p. 71-9.
6. Presidents or Deans of Schools of Medicine, from *Educational Directory*, 1928. p. 73-5.
7. Heads of Departments of Architecture in Universities, recognized by the American Institute of Architects, from official mimeographed list issued by the Institute.
8. Deans of Schools of Business and Commerce belonging to the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, from official mimeographed list issued by the Association.
9. Deans of Dental Schools belonging to the American Association of Dental Schools, from official mimeographed list issued by the Association.
10. Deans of Schools and Heads of Departments of Journalism belonging to the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism from official mimeographed list issued by the Association in 1928.
11. Heads of Schools of Nursing accredited by State Boards of Examiners: A random selection of 300 from the 1800 accredited schools included in the official list published in 1926 by the American Nurses' Association.

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VITA

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